DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 425 398 CG 028 968

AUTHOR	Walz, Garry R.
TITLE	China-U.S. Conference on Education. Collected Papers. (Beijing, People's Republic of China, July 9-13, 1997).
INSTITUTION	ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Student Services, Greensboro, NC.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
ISBN	ISBN-1-56109-085-9
PUB DATE	1999-00-00
NOTE	132p.; For individual papers, see CG 028 969-983.
CONTRACT	ED-99-CO-0014
AVAILABLE FROM	ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Student Services, UNCG, 201 Ferguson Building, Greensboro, NC 27402-6171 ($15).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Proceedings (021) -- ERIC Publications (071)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Education; Educational Change; Educational Improvement; *Educational Innovation; Foreign Countries; *Instructional Innovation; Intercultural Communication
IDENTIFIERS	*China

ABSTRACT

This book contains papers presented by educators during the China-U.S. Conference on Education in July, 1997. Only papers prepared by American authors were received and included in this collection. Chapters included are (1) "Art, Education, and Community: Arts Genesis, Inc." (C. S. Kestler); (2) "Applications of Portfolio Assessment in a Teaching and Nursing Program" (P. Ashelman, C. Dorsey-Gaines, G. Glover-Dorsey); (3) "Creative Dance Improvisation: Fostering Creative Expression, Group Cooperation, and Multiple Intelligences" (M. A. Brehm, C. M. Kampfe); (4) National Diffusion Network: Project Enrichment Exemplary Program" (R. Callard-Szugit); (5) "A Systems Approach to Improving Teacher Development in Kansas" (K. S. Gallagher, R. J. Gallagher); (6) "Future Problem Solving: Connecting the Present to the Future" (J. B. Jackson, L. Crandell, L. Menhennett); (7) "Transformative Dimensions of Mentoring: Implications for Practice in the Training of Early Childhood Teachers" (A. Martin, J. Trueax); (8) "The Building: An Adaptation of Francis Debyser's Writing Project: A Global Simulation to Teach Language and Culture" (M. C. Magnin); (9) "Report Cards: Stepping Away from Tradition" (S. L. Whittle); (10) "Variability in Response to Life Transitions: Application of a Transition Model" (C. M. Kampfe); (11) "Life-Long Learning: Learning To Be Productive" (T. K. Oester, D. E. Oester); (12) "Teacher Assistance Teams: A System for Supporting Classroom Teachers in China or the United States" (M. Van Dusen Pysh, J. C. Chalfant); (13) "Collaborative School Improvement: An Integrated Model for Educational Leaders" (E. A. Perry); (14) "Professor-in-Residence: Redefining the Work of Teacher Educators" (F. M. Simpson); (15) "Emerging Priorities and Emphases in School Counseling, Guidance, and Student Services" (G. R. Walz, J. C. Bleuer). Information on ERIC resources is appended. (EMK)

ED 425 398

CHINA-U.S. Conference on Education

Beijing, People's Republic of China

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July 9-13, 1997

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of China

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Collected Papers from the

CHINA-U.S. Conference on Education

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Edited by Garry R. Walz

ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Student Services
201 Ferguson Building • PO Box 26171
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Greensboro, North Carolina 27402-6171
800/414-9769

CHINA-US CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION
BEIJING CHINA

1999
Printed by
ERIC Counseling and Student Services Clearinghouse
PO Box 26171
Greensboro, NC 27402-6171

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ISBN 1-56109-085-9

This publication was funded in part by the US Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Contract no. ED-99-CO-0014. Options expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the positions of the US Department of Education, OERI, or ERIC/CASS.

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Preface

This publication is the result of a unique educational experience involving a group of American educators who journeyed to Beijing, China and presented papers on many aspects of education. The American educators were matched with Chinese educators to provide presentations on each topic with both a Chinese and an American presenter. Our original plans called for a publication that would include all of the American and Chinese presentations. A number of factors, e.g., language difficulties, conflicting priorities of the presenters, precluded our efforts to develop a publication which covered all of the presentations. However, the quality of the papers we did receive was such that we thought it important to proceed with the publication so that the papers which were written would be disseminated and used by persons interested in looking at new developments in Chinese and American education. Only papers prepared by American authors, however, were received and included in this collection.

This collection of papers is noteworthy for the freshness and breadth of ideas presented. They are as useful to a person interested in new developments in American education as they are to someone desirous of learning what aspect of American education Chinese educators are particularly interested in.

To assist in the dissemination and easy retrieval of these papers each paper has been entered into the ERIC data base as a separate document and retrievable as such. The full array of documents is also available as a single document in ERIC under the title of ***China-U.S. Conference on Education, Beijing, People's Republic of China***. Ordinarily the documents contained in this publication would have been forwarded to the Clearinghouse whose scope the topic of the paper was closest to. Because of the manner in which the publication was developed, Ted Brandhorst of the ERIC Facility generously allowed us to submit all of them.

A special appendix is attached which provides information on how to access and use ERIC – both manually and on-line (Internet). This should be helpful to anyone desirous of delving in more depth in any of the areas covered. Perhaps it will also stimulate readers to consider submitting some of their own writing/research to ERIC/CASS for consideration for inclusion in the ERIC data base.

This preface would not be complete without my expression of thanks to those who labored to produce the manuscripts which make up this publication. They make good reading! I also appreciate their patience and understanding in the countless hurdles we faced and the subsequent delay in the appearance of the publication. I hope the final product was worth the wait!

Garry R. Walz, PhD
Director, ERIC/CASS

CHINA-U.S.
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Chapter One

Art, Education, and Community: Arts Genesis, Inc.

Carol S. Kestler

ARTS GENESIS, INC. (AGI) was formed 10 years ago to create multicultural and community-based arts programming partnerships that enrich, educate, and empower. Its purpose is to foster progressive social change through arts education projects that address social and cultural crises currently affecting the human family. AGI forms partnerships with diverse communities to assist them in finding fulfillment through the arts by meeting their own self-defined needs; uses arts experiences to encourage discovery, creativity, and diversity; and continually strives for excellence in the arts and in education.

The uniqueness of AGI rests upon its (a) commitment to arts education for all learners; (b) collegial relationships of AGI Artist/Educators who develop, implement, and evaluate programming in collaboration with our educational partners; (c) emphasis on working partnerships with schools, community organizations, and other educators; and (d) recognition of the social, cultural, emotional, and political realities that shape our participants' lives.

ARTS GENESIS has been recognized as building two of the 11 most successful programs in the U.S. combining youth art and substance abuse prevention. AGI is featured in *ARTWORKS! Prevention Programs for Youth & Communities* published by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) in March, 1997. *Business Week* magazine presented Richey Elementary School with one of 10 national Business Week Awards For Instructional Innovation: Schools With An Arts Driven Curriculum in August 1997, in recognition of PROJECT CHOKI, a program in collaboration with AGI. Other organizations joining *Business Week* in selecting winning schools were (a) The McGraw Hill Educational and Professional Publishing Group, (b) Getty Institute for the Arts, (c) the President's Committee on the Arts and Humanities, and (d) the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).

ARTS GENESIS grew out of PROJECT CHOKI. PROJECT CHOKI began 17 years ago as an art experience for first-grade children at Richey Elementary School in Old Pascua Yaqui Village, Tucson, Arizona. CHOKI means "star" in the Yaqui Indian language. Old Pascua has, since the early 1900s, been the home of a group of Pascua Yaqui people who once lived, traveled, and traded freely over a large part of Sonora, Mexico, and Arizona. Old Pascua borders an equally historic Mexican-American Barrio. This produces a neighborhood of unique culture, energy, and imagery.

The Richey population of 230 children is 44% Yaqui, 44% Hispanic, 10% Anglo, 2% African-American and Oriental. More than 20% of the students are physically, mentally and/or emotionally challenged special learners. 45 staff and 35 parents, over 90% Yaqui and Hispanic, are also PROJECT CHOKI participants.

The first project at Richey involved first graders in bandage gauze mask-making. The students' care, their attention to detail, and their unusually high levels of empathy, cooperation, and mutual support, made it possible for us to explore masks and mask-making in a greater depth than previously accomplished with intermediate and even adult students. Finished masks contained allusions to cultural experiences and strong personal aesthetic statements.

Students proved willing to dramatize and perform in their masks. Masked performance, including dance and mime, is an important part of Yaqui culture and a central feature of the world famous Yaqui Easter Ceremonies. The first graders were drawing from and elaborating upon family and community traditions, as well as using skills taught in PROJECT CHOKI classes.

Students also wrote about, discussed, analyzed, appreciated, and shared their experience. Their use of language was more fluent and colorful than their usual writing in both Spanish and English. Most understood and internalized what they had accomplished in the context of world-wide mask traditions. One student, pointing to a masked African sculpture I had brought into the classroom, told me: "If I went to his village in Africa, he would know what my mask was about!"

Fifteen years ago, I began to work with the Richey Elementary School staff and the new Tucson Unified School District (TUSD) Department of Native American Studies to develop culturally based Yaqui programming at Richey. Together with the new TUSD Yaqui language specialists and community elders, PROJECT CHOKI looked at appropriate ways for students to explore and express themselves about Yaqui culture and ceremonies in a public school setting. Students abstracted Yaqui symbols and began to discuss their culture with non-Yaqui peers and adults. Non-Yaqui students could see, and interpret, Yaqui cultural artifacts and ideas from their own perspectives.

We used traditional Yaqui Pahkola masks as still life subjects, working with the resulting drawings as we would any other subject matter:

(a) studying and drawing the masks with attention to form and design;
(b) discussing and critiquing the resultant work;
(c) learning about the use of the masks from elders and traditional teachers;
(d) comparing and contrasting these masks and their use with masks in their widest context, including traditional and artistic masks from a variety of cultures, theater and dance masks from around the world, and masks in sports and industrial applications; and
(e) looking at and discussing the work of artists who used masks in two-dimensional formats.

Images resulting from this work are now on permanent display in the Arizona State Museum, and are part of a 40-piece show from the PROJECT

CHOKI archives currently traveling under the auspices of ATLATL, the national Native American arts service organization. Group-designed fantasy masks, several feet high, are part of the permanent collection of the Tucson Children's Museum.

Eleven years ago, PROJECT CHOKI brought in a puppeteer to work with students and teachers in grades 3 and 4, Yaqui educators and elders. Students created giant puppets to explore and dramatize Yaqui history. For the first time, Non-Yaqui audiences heard the story of how the traditional Yaqui flute and drum entered the world. A Deer Dancer (a third grade Richey student) appeared on a school stage for the first time in the U.S. The puppets became a permanent part of the school scene and were used in the classroom for many kinds of language exploration, storytelling, and drama activities.

The following year, four classes participated in the "Opera In Old Pascua" project. Fifth-grade students gathered family stories and traditions and used these to write, produce, and perform the opera, "Yoeme" that told the story of the migration of Pascua Yaqui people from Rio Yaqui, Mexico, to the village of Old Pascua. Students interwove family history and Yaqui legends with a study of the railroads and Tucson settlement patterns. They used Yaqui, Spanish, and English text to capture the flavor of their own language and storytelling.

Each of the classes picked their own theme, wrote words and music, designed staging and scenery. The fourth grade class, working with their Mexican-American classroom teacher, wrote "Cancion de la Raza" (Song of our People), about music and dance traditions in their own families and community.

Sixth graders chose the theme of gangs and drugs with "Too Cool for School." At first, they wanted to show the excitement and glamour of dropping out. Then, as they developed their characters, they began to worry about what would happen to them. As students seriously explored what they knew had happened to dropouts in the community, they changed their libretto entirely. The final chorus became, "Don't be a fool, Be really cool, Stay in school." Teachers and artists who worked with this group learned a great lesson about keeping hands off and trusting that the artistic process itself will elicit genuine searching and ultimate honesty from students.

Our Intermediate Special Education class was visited by "Aliens From Outer Space," who invited the students to come visit their home planet in recognition of all their special talents and abilities. Our decision to have these students work as a group, rather than mainstreaming them with their peers in the other classrooms, paid off in their opportunity to look at themselves as special learners with unique talents and abilities. Their teacher was amazed at their ability to produce and perform their own opera, and delighted by the growth in language, self-esteem and cooperation that resulted from the project.

The "Opera In Old Pascua" project drew on the expertise and leadership of Dr. Carroll A. Rinehart, L.H.D., who has led some 500 similar projects throughout the US. He was supported by community musicians, dancers, and theater artists.

In 1990, a Yaqui elder and educator approached us about starting a traditional Yaqui children's dance group at Richey Elementary School. This group would provide further links between the school and traditional Yaqui homes, guarantee the training of Yaqui ceremonial performers, and assure an understanding of Yaqui culture for non-Yaqui students who would be encouraged to participate. The Richey School Yaqui Children's Cultural Dance Group has now performed for more than 60,000 people throughout Arizona, at schools, community events, and traditional Yaqui ceremonies. It was the first traditional Yaqui dance group in a public school setting in the U.S. or Mexico. Similar groups have since been formed in two Tucson middle and high schools.

PROJECT CHOKI became a school-wide arts education program in 1986. 800 hours of programming per year have included weekly music classes that build basic skills in language, math, and coordination, as well as music. 5th and 6th graders have been able to start band and orchestra work on string and wind instruments on an intermediate rather than beginner level.

Richey students, while only 2% of their middle school population, typically form 25%-35% of the band, orchestra, and choral groups.

Joy of Movement and *Imaginary Journeys Around the World* for grades K-4 have built basic performance skills, including creative movement, story enactment, and voice improvisation. Students also learn children's games and chants from around the world.

Annual puppetry residencies for all grades have culminated in performances based on children's literature selected and taught by the classroom teachers. Teachers, students, and AGI artist/educators have also used puppets to analyze conflict situations, teach about other cultures and their aesthetic traditions, practice behavioral and coping skills, and learn about history, and health.

Arts units are co-developed and taught by AGI professional artist/educators, classroom teachers, parents, community members, and special cultural and subject area consultants to enhance and supplement other classroom studies. For example, second graders explored hats and head-covers from around the world as an introduction to a series of experiences with felting, spinning, and weaving integrated into the social studies curriculum. Students made felt blocks and formed them into hats of their own design. They laid and felted their group project in the traditional manner, by stamping on the wet wool mat to the accompaniment of drumming and chanting. The group produced a 5 x 5 foot hanging that illustrates the desert, with its plant, animal, and human relationships. The piece still hangs in the Richey Elementary School entrance hall 11 years later.

Subsequent experiences over the next four years included learning to wash and card wool, spin with a drop spindle, weave on small card looms, and, finally, on a large Navajo loom. Working with a Navajo weaver in small groups, students experienced the traditional "loom talk"– the story telling, oral history, natural history, and personal discussion that take place between generations around the loom. They also studied the care of the wool-bearing animals, and the plants used in dying and preparing the yarns both in their classrooms and in field studies with traditional Native American, Latino, University, and museum instructors.

Classroom teachers and Arts Genesis artist/educators co-create units that answer broad curriculum needs. In a 4th grade class, quilting was used to introduce math manipulatives. Each student produced, wrote about, and explained a personal quilt block to the class. It was executed first with the math blocks, then in paper, and finally in fabric. One block, for example, was made in memory of a child's dog who had just died, and who "loved bright colors."

Another year, 3rd graders produced a quilt illustrating the "Ku Bird" story that appears in many versions in Yaqui and Hispanic traditions. Students brought their own family versions to class, then combined them to produce the story for their quilt that still hangs at Richey Elementary School some 10 years later. Students discussed how different endings brought out different morals to the story, how they emphasized the roles of different characters, and what each taught about how people were expected to live together. Individual writings, group dramatizations of various story versions, plus reading similar stories and fables from around the world completed the study.

In one 3rd grade social studies unit, students first photographed their community, then produced quilt pieces showing important places and activities. They arranged these through group discussion and negotiation, producing a 4-foot by 6-foot felt quilt which also still graces Richey walls 9 years later. This was a unique way to study map making, as well as community traditions and how people share the streets in a unique multicultural neighborhood. I will never forget seeing Vietnamese people barely able to turn the corner with their New Year's Dragon that year, as a masked Chapiaka (Yaqui ceremonial dancer) emerged from the desert shrubbery!

A 5th grade health unit was the starting place for a drawing and sculpture unit entitled *It's Me!* Students gathered and made collages of personal mementos, wrote autobiographies, projected career choices, photographed each other, drew, and finally molded three dimensional self portraits on styrofoam hat blocks.

A study of desert plants and animals began a two-year unit on silk screen stenciling by grades 5 and 6. Students drew animals and plants from nature and from scientific drawings. They took field trips, then wrote about and discussed desert relationships. Students cooperatively produced the screens and printed banners that still hang, after 10 years, in city offices and homes. Their designs have been sold on greeting cards, tee-shirts, and shopping bags to raise scholarship money for themselves and for during-school and after-school programming.

Major media and artistic concepts are revisited several times between first and fifth grade in a spiral curriculum that develops age appropriate ideas and skills. There is ample opportunity for experimentation in both individual and group projects. Each art making experience finishes with opportunities to reflect on accomplishments individually in sketchbook or journals and in the creative group. Group projects combine various disciplines and media, often finishing with a celebration and performance in drama, music, or dance.

Classroom teachers and staff attend professional development workshops with Arts Geneses artist/educators as well as participating in the classroom experiences along with their students. Parents and other family members, including siblings of all ages, also attend community workshops with AGI professionals.

Through the arts, PROJECT CHOKI students have developed imagination, observation, and concentration. They have analyzed complex mathematical problems individually and in groups. They have shared research, personal stories, and cultural celebrations. They have integrated their knowledge in ways that enhance their capabilities as individuals and as a community of learners. The first class to experience PROJECT CHOKI for 6 years was also the first in which every child that we can trace graduated middle school. CHOKI was also part of the intensive educational effort that cut the Old Pascua middle school dropout rate from 30% to zero, and has helped to hold it below 10%. During the same time, the percentage of high school graduates has doubled.

Last year, after 15 years of success, Arts Genesis linked Richey Elementary School and PROJECT CHOKI with Pueblo Gardens Elementary School in a new project called **ArtsBuild.** ArtsBuild carries the CHOKI model into a school almost half again as large as Richey, with 350 students. The population is 68% Hispanic, 13% Black, 12% Anglo, 4% Laotian, and 3% Native American. 11% are special learners.

The most significant collaboration during this first year was the ArtsBuild Community Mural Project. Grades 3, 4, and 5 (208 students in all) joined energies to produce a mural 88 feet long by 6 feet high depicting their greatest hopes and wildest dreams for their communities. The mural is entirely the work of the student artists and vibrates with their color and fantastic imagery.

Working with Arts Genesis artist/educators, students used creative dance experiences to build and understand community. After embodying these experiences, they interpreted them in their journals. Classes composed and played music about their community, and again, illustrated and interpreted this in their journals. They wrote individual and group poems about their mural and the growth and change in themselves because of its success.

Richey Elementary School and Pueblo Gardens Elementary School students came together to discuss and create art about their mural experiences. The mural was permanently installed at Borders Books & Music, a major Tucson bookstore. It was unveiled on Cinco de Mayo, 1997, amidst much fanfare and excitement, at a party for the artists, their families, and friends. The mural has become nationally known as an outstanding example of business and community collaboration in art and education.

A total of 600 students, pre-school through grade 5, participated in ArtsBuild during the first year. Results of two interim evaluations reveal that ArtsBuild has made significant progress in achieving its program objectives and is well on its way to achieving its overall program goal:

> to enhance the learning environment for students, parents, and teachers through the visual, performing, and literary arts by creating opportunities for learners to reach their full

potential as individuals and as part of a learning community.

ARTS GENESIS believes every person has the right to an education that develops imagination, creativity, responsibility, and a sense of wonder. Over the next two years we plan to show and document how art builds a better educational environment, and therefore more successful lives, for students and their communities.

Chapter Two

Applications of Portfolio Assessment in a Teaching and Nursing Program

Polly Ashelman, Catherine Dorsey-Gaines & Geraldine Glover-Dorsey

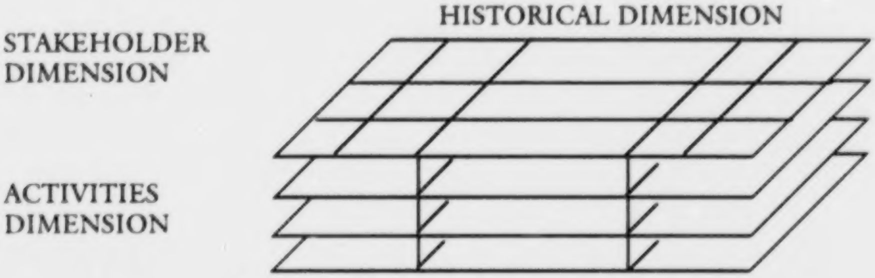
Everyone who teaches deliberates about how to support students' constructivist processes and encounters the recurring question "How can I maximize opportunities for learning and growth?" In an effort to address this issue, several members of the Department of Early Childhood and Family Studies at Kean University in New Jersey designed a system of portfolio assessment, which has become an integral part of the evaluation process for graduate students. With a similar purpose, professors at the University of Texas School of Nursing at Galveston have formulated a portfolio plan for students in an undergraduate health assessment course.

Portfolios provide a complex, multidimensional, and dynamic framework for assessment. Development of metacognitive strategies, student empowerment, and responsive program practice are alsosupported through portfolio assessment (Paulson & Paulson, 1990; Rogers & Danielson, 1996). Maintaining portfolios for graduate students enrolled in the Department of Early Childhood and Family Studies at Kean University serves three primary departmental goals. First, assessment for college students is congruent with the department's position on appropriate practice for young children. Second, instruction and assessment are based on the principles of constructivism, which validate the importance of each student's role in self and shared reflection, goal setting, and personal responsibility for professional growth (DeVries & Kohlberg, 1990; Duff, Brown, & Scoy, 1995). Third, this type of assessment involves the faculty in a collegial process of reflection, critical analysis of program outcomes, and the preparation of their own portfolios.

An adaptation of The Cognitive Model for Assessing Portfolios (Paulson & Paulson,1990) has provided a comprehensive conceptual framework for constructing and evaluating portfolios for graduate students (Ashelman & Lenhoff, 1993). This model incorporates three dimensions; Activities, Historical and Stakeholder (See Table 1).

The Stakeholder Dimension involves the relationship of mutual investment shared between each student and faculty advisor. Student choice supports the concept of active involvement in assessment, as an essential and vital part of the construction of knowledge (Wadlington, 1995). In addition, as the student and advisor work together to select and analyze information, each invests time and energy that deepens the commitment of both to continued professional growth (Jones, 1993).

Table 1. The Cognitive Model for Assessing Portfolios
Paulson & Paulson, 1990



The Historical Dimension divides the portfolio process into three phases, which include (a) a baseline record of performance, (b) documentation of changes over time, and (c) summative information that can be used to verify learning outcomes. The three phases of the Historical Dimension are divided between the time spent in introductory or core courses, specialized courses and electives, and the Advanced Seminar Research Project, whichis the culminating experience for students obtaining a master's degree.

The Activities Dimension defines what is to be collected in the portfolio, as well as what is minimally acceptable. Writing, professional development, and teaching practice are the three categories of the Activities Dimension. Multiple samples are collected for each category to strengthen the validity of judgments about performance.

Writing, the first category of the activities dimension, is a crucial area of development for graduate students. Through the portfolio process, students are encouraged to engage in critiques of their writing through individual and group activities. Process writing, which includes brainstorming, drafting, and editing, is emphasized (Hoskinsson & Thompkins,1994).

Students are encouraged to write frequently about a wide range of topics. Many of the samples are reviewed and reflected upon. In addition, specific samples of writing are collected at three specified intervals. The first takes place during two introductory courses in which a review of literature and a research proposal are developed. The second interval occurs during completion of additional required and/or approved elective courses. Students choose samples, which may include an action research project, a review of the literature, a position paper, and/or an essay test. The second phase culminates with a written comprehensive examination. The third interval includes the development of an Advanced Seminar Research Project, to be written for a professional audience. This project is developed in cooperation with a faculty mentor.

The second area of the Activities Dimension is professional development. This aspect of the Activities Dimension offers a systematic approach by which students are encouraged to reflect on their own behavior and how it corresponds to the standards of professional organizations, such as the National Association for the Education of Young Children and the National Board for Professional

Teaching Standards (NAEYC, 1991; Duff, Brown, & Scoy, 1995). Leadership and commitment to developmentally appropriate practice have been identified as desired outcomes. Students' growth in these areas can be documented through participation in professional development activities.

The first two phases of assessing professional development include preparation of a professional growth plan and a written philosophy that connects theory and practice. The third phase iscompleted during a two semester Advanced Seminar Research Project. This project is shared with a professional audience through presentation of a workshop, submission of a grant, preparation of a manuscript for publication, or innovative leadership contribution to a professional organization.

The third category of the Activities Dimension is teaching practice. In specialized courses and informal study groups, graduate students simulate classroom practice through working with scenarios, problems, and dilemmas, which encourage them to interact collaboratively, to evaluate experiences and to debate both personal and professional issues. This simulated practice culminates with the comprehensive examination.

The comprehensive examination is written in essay format and requires students to formulate an action plan for a specific early childhood or family studies problem or topic, which demonstrates appropriate application of theory, research and personal insight. Each examination is read and responded to by three members of the Early Childhood and Family Studies Department. Thus, students receive feedback from multiple sources.

Field practice focuses on classroom behavior and change at the school level. Shared video analysis of the student as a practitioner, peer observation, and a documented statement about performance from the student's supervisor provide data about growth and development. Journals and narratives, as well as examples from children's projects, also yield some of the most important information about student's field practice.

Collecting and maintaining portfolio samples and artifacts is a cooperative process between the student and advisor. Students are responsible for maintaining their portfolio and for giving it a format that is personal and unique to them. Graduate students are also asked to provide feedback about the program at specified intervals. This is intended to inform the portfolio advisor and the graduate coordinators about student needs and reflections that are pertinent to the ways the department can be more supportive of their development. The most recent student-based change involves the addition of peer mentoring.

Mentoring is gaining recognition as a valuable process in early childhood staff development and teacher induction programs. In recognition that the roles and responsibilities of early childhoodprofessionals demand mastery of complex interpersonal skills, the mentoring relationship provides a context which fosters this type of growth. In addition, the support system mentoring creates enables individuals to take the risks that are necessary for major changes in personal and professional perspective and practice (Martin, 1997).

All graduate students in the Department of Early Childhood and Family

Studies are asked to participate in a peer mentoring program. Each student selects a mentor within the first semester of matriculation. Peer mentors are chosen from alumni of the master's program and other professional personnel who volunteer to serve in this capacity. Mentors and students meet or confer by telephone on a regular basis. All participants attend periodic general meetings, which encompass topics such a portfolio preparation. Mentors provide ongoing support as the students engage in the reflection and analysis required for portfolio development. Mentors also answer questions, assist in preparation for writing assignments and exams, engage in problem solving activities, share information about action research, and invite their group to their schools and to professional meetings.

The peer mentoring relationship is nonjudgmental, collaborative, and reciprocal. It focuses on personal and professional development of both the mentor and student. Mentors report that the rewards of continuing the connection to the Department of Early Childhood and Family Studies and to friends made during graduate studies, interaction and professional growth, the satisfaction of sharing their knowledge and expertise, and commitment to the field of early childhood as reasons for taking on their responsibilities. When asked to evaluate the program, students' responses ranged from gratitude for the help in surviving their first semester to appreciation for the personal and professional bond with their mentor that will last beyond graduate studies.

At the conclusion of the course of studies, all graduate students have an exit interview with their portfolio advisor and their peer mentor for the purpose of examining their growth and reflecting on the context for learning provided by the department. Analysis of portfolio data serves to help with evaluation of how well the teacher education program is meeting its goals and it also provides feedback about the impact of portfolio participation on students' classroom practices with children.

An examination of outcomes for alumni of the graduate program,who participated in portfolio assessment, indicated that most were implementing some type of portfolio assessment with children, families, or both (Gracon & Ashelman, 1995). Seven of these students have shared their work on portfolio assessment through presentations at conferences and professional workshops (Ashelman, 1996). Thus, they have also become better models of appropriate assessment practices for other practitioners to emulate.

In the undergraduate Health Assessment course offered at the University of Texas School of Nursing at Galveston, students are introduced to the theoretical base for physical, psychological, sociological, and cultural assessment of clients throughout the life span. They have the opportunity to practice the procedural steps necessary for specific assessments in a supervised laboratory setting. A major course objective addresses the critical thinking, problem solving, and communication skills that are necessary to analyze and report on health histories and physical assessment findings. The use of portfolios has provided a way to assess students' progress in these areas. The portfolio activities emphasize students' responses to questions regarding specific body systems, such as the eye or the ear. Criteria for evaluation has been developed and shared among the nursing professors to insure consistency in the evaluation process. Professors and students confer to share feedback at various intervals during the semester. Information gathered on the use of portfolios in the Health Assessment course has been positive. Since effective communication is essential in the nursing profession, it is imperative that the students are able to critically assess the clinical situation and report their findings accurately. The use of portfolios appears to be an effective means for documenting these aspects of professional growth.

The examples of portfolios developed at Kean University and the University of Texas School of Nursing at Galveston demonstrate that this type of assessment offers a flexible and personalized, yet systematic, means for assessing students' professional development and achievement of competence in requisite skills and concepts. Portfolios also enable teachers and students to collaborate in the assessment/learning process in a manner that supports all participants. In professions that emphasize interpersonal competence and acquisition of complex concepts, skills, attitudes and values, portfolios offer a valuable means for assessment.

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Chapter Three

Creative Dance Improvisation: Fostering Creative Expression, Group Cooperation, and Multiple Intelligences

Mary Ann Brehm & Charlene M. Kampfe

Abstract

The basic elements of creative dance improvisation are examined with a view towards how this approach to dance can benefit human development. Creative dance improvisation is shown to address students' needs for self-expression as well as the need to learn to creatively work within a group. Examples of how each dance element can be applied to the school curriculum are provided as well as examples of how the elements of dance relate to multiple intelligences. This paper also describes the demonstration dances presented at the conference and suggests movement explorations for the reader to try in order to understand the concepts more fully.

Creative dance improvisation involves both the movement of the body with awareness and the awakening of the creative spirit. Because of this, it satisfies two of humanity's basic needs–the need to move and the need to create and make order or form from experiences. This paper focuses on understanding what creative dance improvisation is and how it can be a means for growth in the general education of anyone throughout their lives. In our lecture demonstration at the China-U.S. Conference on Education we talked about dance and how it could be related to the school curriculum. We also demonstrated improvised dances, showed slides, and asked the audience to participate in movement explorations. This account of that presentation includes references to both the improvised demonstration dances, indicated in parentheses, and also to the movement cues given to the participants, indicated in brackets. It is hoped that these references will give you, the reader, a sense of dance as an activity and also encourage you to take the opportunity to try some of the movement problems yourself as you read.

In creative dance, the dancers improvise. That means the movementsare created as they are dancing, rather than being a pre-determined form. How do they do this? By paying attention to the sensations in their bodies and letting them guide them to find movements that are satisfying and are meaningful. It involves using all the senses, especially the sense that tells where one is in space and how one is moving. This is called the kinesthetic sense or the movement sense. When using the kinesthetic sense, the mind pays attention to the information that the nerves are feeding to the brain about the moving parts of the body. The mind is stimulated by these sensations with associations that are always subjective. One person's experience of moving their arm is not like another's experience. How it feels to move today is not exactly how it felt yesterday, although there are, of course, commonalties between people and between days. The movement sensations felt through the kinesthetic sense often have an emotional quality or feeling tone. Creative dance evokes skilled use of the mind as it focuses on, and is aware of, the movements being done. It uses states of emotions and feeling as guides for creating movement.

Calling upon body, mind and emotions and unifying them through movement expression helps people connect with their creative spirit. Dancing in this way develops the realization of who one is at the deepest levels. This is its value both to individuals and to groups learning to dance creatively together in a cooperative way. When dance is approached in this way, it is an activity of great value for everyone; not something to be taught to a few who intend to become dance professionals. This is why it is so important to continue to work for teaching creative dance in public school. In addition to approaching dance as pure movement expression, creative dance can also be used in education to teach the general curriculum. By bringing the power of deep involvement of the subject being studied, it helps students connect to stories they are reading or writing, history they are studying, math they are learning, and science they are exploring.

Several elements are involved in our approach to creative dance improvisation. One of the hall marks of creative dance is that although it addresses a very intuitive, subjective aspect of human life, it can be approached through a very objective analysis of human movement expression. Because of this, it is readily applicable to many non-dance areas of education. The elements we use in teaching creative dance are the body and the movement elements of force, time and space. Movement is the primary characteristic of life and of the structure of the universe. These same elements of force, time and space apply to all movements, not just dance movements. Because of this link to all kinds of movement,creative dance improvisation can easily be applied to other areas. This kind of analysis often helps people without movement training to understand this approach to dance.

The Body Element

Every art form has an instrument with which to create its particular form of art. In dance, the instrument is the body. In teaching creative dance, we often begin by exploring how different parts of the body want to move. As the students are doing this, they pay attention to the kinesthetic sensations they are getting as they move and that guides them in how they want to continue moving. In order to feel the movement fully, it is often useful to close the eyes.

We invite you to try some of these movements of parts of the body. Close your eyes as you try each of these suggestions in order to sense the movement more fully.

> Move your head and feel what that feels like. Now move your shoulders....... Feel your shoulders moving....... Move your torso, this moves your spine. You can bend it and arch it. Move it carefully, feeling the movement the whole time.....Now move your arms, move them anyway that feels good. Stop..... Hold your arms wherever they are. Close your eyes and feel the position of your arms in space. Now move your arms again...... Stop again and feel where they are.

You have just gone through the beginnings of waking up your body so that it can be used as an instrument to express something through dance. You have experienced what it feels like to pay attention to the kinesthetic sense. Our teacher, Barbara Mettler, calls this the ***tune-up*** and it is much like how an orchestra tunes up before it begins playing a symphony, or how we tune-up a car to make sure it runs properly. We often recommend to teachers that they begin their school day with a chance for the students to tune-up their bodies.

It is also important to get the whole body moving. This can be done by asking students to explore movements of different action words such as *stretch*.

> You can begin that exploration by first reaching with your arms, then your whole body, and feeling yourself stretching. Stretch freely in ways that feel good to stretch......
>
> Now try a movement that has a very different feeling from stretch, *Shake*. Shake your hands..... Shake everything that can shake...... You can let your voice shake too.

There are many action words that are good for stimulating movement such as twisting, flopping, bouncing, swinging. Each one has adifferent feeling to it. Thinking of movement in terms of these action words is a useful way of finding a link to a curricular area you are studying. Everything in the world moves. If you can name the action words that describe what you are studying, you can explore them in the same way as stretching and shaking. For example, in the story, *The Little Red Hen*, the red hen does planting movements, harvesting movements, sweeping movements, and the baking movements such as stirring and pouring. Each of these movements can be abstracted and done with the whole body or different body parts. Looking for the action words in a story or identifying the actions of a subject matter is one of the easiest ways to relate dance to a curriculum. (Demonstration dance of *Sweeping Movements*)

The Force Element

We also teach creative dance by looking at one element of movement at a time.

The most primary element of movement involves the way energy or the force of a movement is expended. We call this the Force Element. Movements with a lot of force have a very different feeling than movements with just a little force. In dance we can explore this polarity of feeling by first doing forceful movements such as pushing, pulling, punching, slashing; and then contrasting that feeling with the feeling of light, gentle movements such as floating, fluttering, and dabbing. Dance classes can also explore how these forces interact when groups dance both in a conflicting and cooperative manner. (Dance using a variety of amounts of force both cooperatively and in conflict.)

The force element has a very dramatic, emotional quality to it. In relationship to the curriculum it is useful in exploring the dramatic qualities of characters from a story or historical period. It can also be used to express the forces of nature such as the strong force of a hurricane, or volcano; or the light force of a gentle breeze. (Wind Dance demonstration)

The Time Element

Another way to look at movement is to pay attention to when it is happening and how slow or fast it is going. This is the Time Element of movement.

> Try moving your hands and arms very slowly and feel that
> feeling of slowness.......
> Now move them fast and experience the difference in how
> slow movements feel and fast movements feel.....

Working with time often gets one into playing with the beat patternsof movement. For example slow and fast movements can be mixed and put them into patterns such as "slow, slow, quick quick, slow" or "quick slow, quick slow, quick slow".

> You may want to try clapping a few beat patterns.....

Working with the beat stimulates attentiveness and gives an appreciation for hearing and feeling patterns in the body. This is good practice for seeing patterns in other areas of life and stimulating logical and mathematical thinking.

It takes movement of the hands and arms to make the sound of the clapping. In fact, movement and sound are totally linked. In creative dance improvisation dancers sometimes make sound with hands, feet, other parts of the body and voices. Here they begin to find the link between music and dance. Music can be created while dancing, so that in creative dance, as we approach it, pre-recorded music is rarely used. Whether the sound of movement is audible or not we often are listening to the rhythmic time beat patterns that ebb and flow in our dancing. This gives dancing a liveliness and allows us to discover the rhythms of our own creative spirit.

The rhythm of the time pattern can also be linked to the rhythm of words. Students can get a greater appreciation for poetry and the beauty of words through putting those rhythms into movements. (Improvisation using the nursery rhyme *Peas Porridge Hot* as the basis for the time pattern)

In the Peas Porridge Hot Dance, we listened to the patterns we were making with sound and discovered new and interesting ways of working with those patterns. This idea of listening and discovering is very important to creative dance. If dancers listen to the kinesthetic feedback from the muscles and allow the body to discover the movement possibilities being shown to them, the feeling they get is not so much that they are creating the movements but that the movements are being created through them. Their bodies are being used as instruments of expression. They are discovering the movements that are there for them to do. This experience can be applied to approaching all of life—discovering the work that is there to do, the reason for being placed on this earth at this time.

The Space Element

The third element of movement concentrates on where the movement is happening. It is the Space Element and relates dance to the visual arts such as drawing, painting, and sculpture. Just as dancers can listen to the time beat pattern they can also attend to the spatial patterns of theirmovements to discover where it feels right for their movements to be in space. They can feel the rhythmic flow of movement from curved to straight, or large to small, high to low, or going forwards to going backwards or sidewards. (Human Sculptures Duet, making shapes with the body in relationship to each other.)

Children love to make human sculptures together. It gives them a structure to relate to others that is both safe and friendly. In the United States, our culture is in enough flux that people don't often have a clear sense of where they want to be or how to relate other people. Sometimes they get too close and conflicts arise. Fights start. Other times people are too distant and there is no communication between people and they don't understand each other. By working with spatial studies in movement students can practice skills in knowing where they are in space, where they are going, and how close or far away they want to be from the people they are dancing with. These skills are analogous to those used in getting along with people in the rest of life.

In terms of the curriculum, spatial studies can be used in relationship to writing words or numbers. Making the shape of letters with the body is probably the most common use of creative dance in the United States. Teachers can also have children write words very large in the air with different parts of their body to practice handwriting , spelling, or vocabulary words. For example one can write the word *Beijing* with the head. (Demonstration of writing "Beijing" in both English and Chinese with the head moving through the air.)

In addition, anything that can be represented visually can be represented through movement or shapes of the body in space. In a very successful lesson on Land forms, fifth graders make themselves into the spatial form of different land forms such as mountains, canyons, buttes, spires, and arches. The students then erode into flat planes by slowly sinking down to the ground. Spatial studies are often good for teachers and students who are a little nervous about working with creative movement because the held positions can be more controlled and people may feel less vulnerable than in freer more exuberant movement expression.

Creative Dance and the Multiple Intelligences

In looking at these different ways to approach the teaching of creative dance improvisation you can see that creative dance can appeal to people with many different learning styles or many modes of intelligence. Because it involves movement of the body, it is accessible by people who think through movement, who need to get up and move around to processinformation, who remember something best if they do it or manipulate it. Most children benefit greatly by being able to take something that they are learning and move those ideas with their bodies. Dance improvisation also taps other ways of processing information. The work with the Space Element appeals to the part of people's thinking that relates to visual learning and remembering by seeing images in the mind. Time beat patterns relate to musical and rhythmic abilities as well as to logical patterning. The emphasis on language in the teaching of creative dance helps stimulate students' verbal abilities. Some people are contemplative and introspective. They use what Howard Gardner calls intra-personal intelligence. Creative dance works very deeply with self knowledge and self awareness by using the kinesthetic sense as a guide for how movements are formed into dance experiences. On the other hand, the ability to work and relate cooperatively with others is called upon and developed in group dance improvisation. Because dance communicates non-verbally, people who participate in group dance improvisation learn to relate on a level much deeper than verbal communication. Their inter-personal intelligence is called upon at that deep level.

Group Dance Improvisation

This emphasis on group dance improvisation is one of the hallmarks of the work of Barbara Mettler. From her we learned how groups can improvise together without preplanning and without talking. The way this is taught is by working with the elements we have shown, beginning individually, and then working with partners, and then larger and larger groups. People who explore this kind of dancing have to become very receptive to what is happening around them in the rest of the group. They have to sense not only what is happening in their body, but in the whole group body. Then they have to do what they can to contribute to the themes that the whole group is discovering. This is a very challenging endeavor for those of us in the United States because our culture very much values and promotes individual expression and does not support us in the skills for learning to work cooperatively as a creatively functioning group.

There were many speakers at the China-U.S. Conference on Education who spoke to issues of character education. In his opening keynote remarks, Hal Urban spoke to the point that schools have done a passable job teaching students to be smart but have failed in teaching them to be good. Several Chinese speakers expressed a concern for reforms in their system so that the individual creativity and original thinking could be enhanced without sacrificing benefits for the whole society. At the closing session, Yao Wen-jun expressed the view that people can develop their individuality within the collective.

It has been our experience that creative dance can be a means of encouraging both individual and community richness and growth. Creative dance improvisation work begins with cultivating the individual's ability to feel the sensations of their own movements and to learn to make movement choices based upon those sensations. This builds a strong sense of self. Building from this strong self, creative dance education soon begins to build the skills of dancing in groups. In group dancing, students need to become responsive to external stimulus. Partner and group studies in the force, time, and space elements cultivate that group awareness. Dance studies can focus on using force cooperatively, synchronizing with others around a time-beat pattern, or relating to others in spatial studies such as "Human Sculptures".

All these activities build the skills necessary for individuals to participate in creatively functioning groups. In addition, creative dance works not only with individual bodies in movement but also with group body forms. "Opening and closing" is an example of a set of movements that are basic to both individual and group bodies. In the individual, the parts of the body get farther apart and closer together as one opens and closes.

> You may want to experience this by slowly opening and closing your hands...... Then take the movement into the arms, opening and closing the arms.....Then let the whole body open away from the center of the body and close towards the center.

Opening and closing a group is some what different. The emphasis is not on the parts of the body coming together and apart, but the people coming together and apart, the group getting larger and smaller. The specific movements of separate body parts become less important to what the whole body is contributing to the group shape. In working with group forms in dance improvisation, dancers learn how to create forms cooperatively with others which they would be unable to produce as an individual mover. An individual cannot be a line, circle, or clump of dancers. The individual needs to be a part of a group in order to feel the wonder of creating with those forms.

This approach to dance speaks to and develops both the individual and communal sides of human nature. After having had the experience of creating improvised dances together, dancers can feel a bond that can last a lifetime. One of the greatest challenges and opportunities for growth is to build upon those bonds formed in dancing and use them as guides for building healthy, full lives as individuals, as partners, as families, as friendship groups and as communities.

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Chapter Four

National Diffusion Network: Project Enrichment Exemplary Program

Rosemary Callard-Szugit

The United States Department of Education recognizes and supports exemplary programs through the National Diffusion Network (NDN). The Network was established in 1974, based upon the belief that there are few problems encountered by schools that have not been solved successfully in some other location. The primary function of the NDN is to disseminate information about approved programs so that educational agencies with special needs may choose from an array of programs and select that particular program which meets the agencies' needs, philosophy and resources.

The Network is dedicated to helping local school districts, private schools, intermediate service agencies, state departments of education and post-secondary institutions in their continuing efforts to improve educational opportunities and achievement for all.

Since its inception in 1974, the NDN has grown from 76 to more than 440 nationally recognized exemplary programs. The impact of the NDN on American education has been enormous. In just one year, 93,900 persons received in-service training and an estimated 4.7 million students benefited.

Project Success Enrichment (PSE) is one of these exemplary programs. As a model program to enrich and extend language arts, PSE was originally designed for gifted and talented students. It is now successfully servicing students in the regular classroom, special education, Chapter 1, multicultural and "at-risk" students. PSE meets National Goal for Education 3, because it assists students in learning to use their minds and further their understanding of language arts and the visual arts, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning and productive employment in our modern economy.

As a statistically proven program in reading, writing and literary analysis, Project Success Enrichment requires and teaches students to use higher level thinking rather than engaging a ***fill-in-the blanks*** type of learning.

Both the language arts and visual arts curricula segments of Project Success create "magic" within the minds of children and adults.

The curriculum areas focus on academic and ability development objectives. I've listed the language arts objectives for you as follows:

Academic Objectives

(a) To help students learn skills of word expansion in order to increase writing vocabulary.
(b) To help students learn the use of personifications and similes in order to develop imagery in their written compositions.
(c) To help students learn skills of sentence expansion and sentence variation in order to develop more sophisticated sentence structure.
(d) To help students learn to recognize various types of themes in poetic expression in order to organize their writing around a central thought or idea.
(e) To help students become acquainted with a number of different organizational patterns used in poetry and short story writing to increase their understanding of writing formats.

Ability Development Objectives

I. SELF-MANAGEMENT:
  (a) To present "low-risk, no-lose" type situations where students will contribute constructively to the development of a classroom activity.
  (b) To create an environment where children feel free to use their imaginations in order to develop a format for self expression.
II. SOCIAL SKILLS:
  (a) To develop mutual respect and sharing constructive listening skills among students.
  (b) To promote positive oral communication among students by emphasizing trust-building activities.
III. THINKING SKILLS:
  (a) To help students develop higher level thinking skills of application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.
  (b) To present an atmosphere where ideas are developed and expanded by teachers and students in order to explore multiple alternative approaches to completing a designed activity.

Introductory Activity

Children develop some sort of a vocabulary before they enter school and build on it during their beginning school years in varying degrees depending on the individual's experiences. Often, a child who has a very extensive reading vocabulary does not use it in his or her written expression. He or she still depends upon what we call 5-cent words for expression, such as bad, good, big, little, happy or sad.

WORD WORTH CHART(S)

Start with a chart like the one below:

.05¢	.25¢	.50¢	$1.00
big			
little			

Talk about the kinds of words we use to express ourselves in a writing activity. Discuss the fact that we used words like "big" and "little" in the kindergarten and first grade and still depend on them now. Shouldn't we be using a more sophisticated vocabulary?

Here are some examples of how this lesson may very easily develop.

CHART A

.05¢	.25¢	.50¢	$1.00
big	huge	enormous	massive
little	tiny	microscopic	colossal
			infinitesimal
			minute

CHART B

.05¢	.25¢	.50¢	$1.00
big	huge	enormous	massive colossal
little	tiny	microscopic	
bad (weather)	dark	dreary	dismal
good	wonderful	fabulous	stupendous
happy	excited	joyful	elated

It is also fun and very instructive to fill in the $1.00 sections of the charts first, then have the students work backwards to fill it in. Using a scattered word approach on the chart with the students is also a terrific way to reinforce this lesson.

Two more of the many sequential patterns for writing, creativity and sophisticated vocabulary included in Project Success Enrichment follow:

Example 1

Adjective, adjective noun
Verb, adverb(ly)
Adjective noun, adjective noun
Adverb(ly) noun, verb

(could translate into)

Soft, moist buds
Opening petals slowly
Cloud-speckled sky, radiant sun
Quietly spring unfolds

Example 2

(Using personifications)

Adjective, verb, adjective (the) noun
Adjective, adjective, noun, verb, adverb, prep. phrase

Adjective, noun, verb, prep. phrase
Personification

(could translate into)

Silent is the tree
Large, transparent droplets hang heavily from each barren branch
The wind whistles through the icy branches
As the giant tree stands alone and weeps pitch in its loneliness

There are three levels of training for Project Success Enrichment, each utilizing two days of instruction with a certified trainer.

The Visual Arts segment of PSE is another entire phenomenally brilliant segment of the overall curriculum of Project Success, including the three components of (a) Subject Matter, (b) Composition and (c) Content or Meaning. Their characteristics and implications in art include Fluency, Flexibility, Originality, Elaboration, Courage, Complexity, Curiosity and Imagination.

While I focused primarily on the Language Arts section of Project Success during my presentation today, the entire program of the Language Arts and Visual Arts is the very best I've ever seen for extending, enriching, and training development for excellence in the cognitive minds and affective souls of our children!

In closing, I would like to share one of my favorite poems written by one of our fifth graders who received training with PSE.

THINKING

Thinking is having a mind bursting with thoughts and ideas,
feelings and emotions.
Will it ever be guided and allowed to produce an idea
So ENORMOUS that
it will be known forever to man?
Or. . .
Will it die without ever really having lived?

Chapter Five

A Systems Approach to Improving Teacher Development in Kansas

Karen S. Gallagher & R.J. Pat Gallagher

Teacher education has been a central component of the University of Kansas' mission since 1864 when Governor Thomas Carney signed authorizing legislation for the University of the State of Kansas. Section 10 of that law states that the university was to have six departments, one of which was "The department of theory and practice of elementary instruction." As the academic scope and diversity of the University of Kansas (KU) grew, the challenges of preparing educators likewise became more complex. In 1909, the School of Education was established, and in 1956, the School moved into its first permanent home, Bailey Hall. Today, the School of Education offers education licensure programs in 85 separate endorsement areas, has 84 full time faculty who are housed in four campus locations, are currently organized into 4 departments and has 2600 undergraduate and graduate students.

As the size and complexity of the School of Education have grown, the University, the School and several departments within the School have achieved national recognition for outstanding scholarship and instruction. In 1997, the School of Education's graduate program was ranked 27 out of 223 schools, and the Department of Special Education was ranked first among special education programs by a US. *News and World Report* survey. The faculty of the School of Education generated nearly $10 million in sponsored research funds during fiscal year 1996, and, according to a 1997 *School of Education Fact Sheet,* "...most of these dollars were for projects to improve the lives and educational opportunities of children and youth who are at greatest risk for educational failure."

In light of these accomplishments, it would be easy to lose sight of teacher education at the University of Kansas. Faculty in the School of Education must establish or maintain significant records of scholarship, provide high quality instruction, and at the same time engage in tasks which are essential to the School's daily operations. At the same time that School of Education faculty are challenged to renew and deepen their commitment to teacher education, they face other challenges. The University's goals for sponsored research have increased. Reorganization of both the University and the School posed overwhelming demands for change in how individual faculty members carry out their work. The arenas for research, teaching, and service are also changing. Through Holmes Group membership, the School of Education has developed Professional Development School partnerships with 5 elementary and secondary schools and is soon likely to develop more such relationships based on recognition that all prospective students should participate in at least one clinical experience in a Professional Development School. Just as the School of Education's Professional Development Schools are expanding, needs for new types of partnerships between universities, schools, and communities are emerging. School professionals must now learn to educate effectively a new breed of student...Those who go into the public schools to make their careers must know how to provide the best possible education to a cross-section of children who personify a new America...

The kind of far-reaching change needed to deal with new situations requires concentrated and coordinated reform that cuts across many parts of the system at once. Piecemeal reform has proven inadequate because of the web of connections among the system's various parts.All of these parts must be tied together. Attempts to change only one part at a time are obstructed by the stasis of the larger system...successful improvement requires coordinated changes in all ofthese various parts.

My presentation describes the outcomes of a 5-year involvement of the School of Education in Kansas Project Partnership. This project, funded by the United States Department of Education and the Kansas State Department of Education, had 4 purposes:

1. to promote interdepartmental collaboration;
2. to assist in reorganizing departments;
3. to improve the preparation of all educators to meet the diverse needs of students;
4. to develop field-based partnerships.

Although the final evaluation of this project is not complete, my remarks today are based on a comprehensive case study of the School of Education.

In spite of the fact that funding levels available through Kansas Project Partnership are quite small, approximately one-fourth (1/4) of the School of Education's faculty have participated in the Project In each of the School-wide efforts, all faculty who were invited to participate in discussions agreed to do so and even expressed enthusiasm for doing so. Overall, levels of faculty participation have expanded rather than diminished. Initially a select group of faculty who had been involved in related project efforts were invited to attend the curriculum discussions sponsored by the third School- wide project. However, the discussions grew to include a School-wide constituency as faculty actually complained to session organizers about not being invited to participate.

Faculty engagement in ongoing discussions of the teacher education curriculum does not, of course, mean that the curriculum will change or that they believe it should change. Some faculty appear to participate in order to conserve those elements of the curriculum which they worked hard to put into place fourteen years ago. While willing to review the curriculum and consider areas which might need fine tuning, they see the process as evolutionary.

Other faculty appear ready to "...rebuild from the ground up and examine or reexamine every assumption that's been made about the value of preparing students over a five year period and every assumption that's been made in putting together these courses and experiences in the way we now have them."

Faculty who participated in developing the five year program differ in their perceptions of their collective experiences with this process. Some indicate that they felt disenfranchised from the process when they state, "...it was a done deal. It was decided up front that that's what we'd do and we did it without having much to say." Others indicate that "...we all worked really hard to get to the point where we could honestly say 'this is a very strong program.'"

Likewise, some individuals who joined the faculty after the five year program wasin place see it as "cumbersome" and reference their judgments to other institutions which they feel have more or less successful in similar efforts. Other new faculty see the program as "needing fine tuning but overall very strong."

The fact that initial discussions of the teacher preparation curriculum focused on the processes and attributes of the five year program is not surprising for several reasons. First, the most obvious and unique attribute of teaching preparation at the University of Kansas if the fact that it *does* occur over five years. For faculty who are new to the University, the length and format of the program is likely to be unfamiliar and, thus, dissonant with their experience and, perhaps, beliefs about how teacher education should be done.

Second, for faculty who went through the process of transforming the program, whether or not they had a voice in the transformation, development of the program in its current state represents the most recent and thus most salient experience with curricular and instructional revision. They may well return to discussions of the five year program to criticize the way it was developed (and imply that future curricular discussions should be different), to praise the way it was developed and to note its current impact in producing good teachers, or to simply reflect on the process as a "warm-up exercise" for thinking again about the curriculum and instruction of teacher education.

While a few faculty who were or felt disenfranchised from the development process or its outcome may, indeed, wish to see dramatic change in how teacher education is delivered at KU, analyses of typical change processes would suggest the far greater likelihood that even those faculty would actually prefer more gradual and incremental changes which allow for reflection on progress and ability to control the future by development of more systematic ways to anticipate the need for change.

Moreover, even within the initial discussion meeting sponsored by the third Kansas Project Partnership subgrant, a number of faculty members noted the need to look more closely at the internal coherence of the program rather than its format attributes.

The primary goal of the School of Education-wide Kansas Project Partnership efforts that I have directed as Dean has been to develop a model for continuous improvement which will ensure that *all* teachers are prepared to address the diverse learning needs of *all* students in today's classrooms. The focus of these efforts on continuous improvement rather than making changes is significant in considering the impact of Kansas Project Partnership on the School of Education.

Chapter Six

Future Problem Solving: Connecting the Present to the Future

Jennine B. Jackson, Lisa Crandell & Lorien Menhennett

Abstract

Future Problem Solving (FPS) prepares the student's of today for tomorrow through an educational program that enables students to learn and apply a constructive, deliberate process for solving problems. FPS, a competition and a curriculum program, incorporates a circular problem solving approach along with the linear model and is aligned with recent research and development in Creative Problem Solving (CPS). In July 1997, four Arizona FPS students and the AZFPS Affiliate Director presented FPS at the China-U.S. Conference on Education in Beijing. This paper describes the renewed partnership of FPS and CPS, student interpretations of FPS, and an overview of the Chinese and American students' problem solving activity.

Today's students will spend most of their lives in the 21st Century. As change continues to accelerate, the awesome burden of preparing students for the uncertainties of the new millennium faces educators, parents and the community. To survive in the future, students must develop the thinking skills necessary to adapt to a transforming world and learn how to be a creative problem solver. The Future Problem Solving Program (FPSP) assists students in connecting the present to the future by teaching thinking skills within a problem solving framework.

In July 1997 the Arizona Future Problem Solving Program's Affiliate Director and a four-member Arizona FPSP high school team gave a presentation at Global Interactions's first China-U.S. Conference on Education in Beijing, People's Republic of China. This paper is an extension of theFPSP presentation given by the director and the students.

The Future Problem Solving Program is an educational program created by Dr. E. Paul Torrance of the University of Georgia twenty-four years ago. This program began as a curriculum project for Clark High School in Athens, Georgia. Within the program Dr. Torrance addressed two concerns– decline in creativity and lack of awareness in the students of future trends. He based Future Problem Solving on the Creative Problem Solving process developed for business by Alex Osborn and Sidney Parnes over forty years ago. (Torrance, 1976). Today's Future Problem Solving uses an approach closely aligned with the recent research and development on Creative Problem Solving. (Isaksen, Dorval, & Treffinger, 1994; Treffinger, Isaken, Dorval, 1994).

Students can participate in the Community Problem Solving competition, the Scenario Writing competition, or the Future Problem Solving competition. In Community Problem Solving, students identify a real-life need area and use the Future Problem Solving Model to address the issues. In Scenario Writing students create futuristic scenarios based on the specific topics used in the year-long program by expanding and developing a solution into a story. In the FPS competition, students, working in teams of four, examine scientific, environmental or social challenges of today by projecting these issues into the future. FPSP students and coaches vote each year to choose the broad topics to be used in the FPS and Scenario Writing competitions. The topics for 1997-98 are:

(a) Natural Disasters,
(b) Freedom,
(c) Women in the Workplace,
(d) Non-traditional Families and,
(e) Medical Ethics.

The 1998-99 topics are:

(a) Under the Sea,
(b) Computer Error,
(c) Education: Lifelong Learning,
(d) Prison Alternatives, and
(e) Distribution of Wealth.

The students work with five juried problems; the first two are practice problems, and the next three are the competition problems. The teams advance in the competition as demonstrated by their skill levels in creative and critical thinking. The assessment of a team's work using FPS evaluation procedures with feedback promotes continuous improvement and innovation. FPSP is not just a competition but a program that also enables students to learn and apply a constructive, deliberate process for solvingproblems.

The Future Problem Solving Program has affiliate programs in 40 U.S. states, Australia, and New Zealand. Seven more U.S. states, Canada, and other countries participate through the Open Division for non-affiliated programs. We hope that China will be our next frontier and that Chinese students and teachers will very soon attend the International Conference.

In preparing for the China-U.S. Conference on Education in Beijing, we had many challenges and problems to solve. The most pressing challenge was how to raise the money in order to attend the conference. This challenge represents issues, concerns, or problems that people deal with on an every day basis. Real-life issues are not problems with only one correct answer; they are challenges involving family, finances, work and school. To solve complex challenges, one must look to a process that provides a comprehensive framework for thinking and the Future Problem Solving Program provides that framework.

The following activity shows the rapid change that has taken place in the last two or three decades and demonstrates the unpredictability of the future. By using this with a group, a rationale for teaching and using a creative problem solving process with focus on the future is shown. (Treffinger, Jackson, Jensen, & Bohnenberger, 1997).

1. Think back to when you were 15. What year was that? Write it down.
2. What are some things that 15-year old students take for granted today as ordinary or commonplace that you did not even imagine then?
3. In what year will a present day 15-year old student be the age you are now?
4. How might the world be different for that student?

In the China presentation the high school team explained the goals of FPSP using the definitions and rationales below:

1. FPS is an exciting and challenging way to become interested in our future by using creative thinking and critical analysis. Young people tend to leave the future and its troubles to someone else, but when the future arrives, we will be the ones providing leadership and we need to be prepared for whatever comes.
2. Future Problem Solving improves my written and verbal communication skills, as well as teaches me to organize my thoughts so that I get my points across more effectively. I have expanded my vocabulary by studying about the many varied topics addressed in the practices and competitions. I have learned to utilize problem solving strategies by (a) generating ideas to create solutions to solve problems in my daily life and (b) not becoming as stressed over my problems because I know that I can eventually find an effective solution.
3. Creative thinking encourages Future Problem Solvers to generate a variety of ideas. Being able to use creative thinking will help people in school and in life. Teamwork skills are enhanced as the team works together to complete the booklet of the team's work. Each member contributes something different to the final packet. These teamwork skills carry over into real life: to school, to the workplace and beyond.
4. Future Problem Solving does involve work but overall the experience is one that is worthwhile. Future Problem Solving is exciting because of the rewards for doing well in competition and being able to apply the process in our daily lives. State Bowl and the International Conference have

> proved to be memorable and part of the reason why we look forward to continuing in FPSP.

The foundation tools of the Creative Problem Solving process (creative thinking and critical thinking) must both be employed for the results to be productive. Creative thinking uses the components of fluency, flexibility, elaboration and originality to arrive at unique and unusual ideas. Creative thinking invokes the Principle of Deferred Judgment, i.e., not judging while generating ideas. This is achieved by using such generating tools as brainstorming, force fitting, SCAMPER and the Morphological Matrix. Critical thinking uses the components of analysis, refining, or evaluation to address the ideas generated. Critical thinking applies the Principle of Affirmative Judgment, i.e., constructively examining the possibilities, and is achieved by using the focusing tools of evaluation and analysis to examine possibilities to enhance them. Some specific focusing tools are *Hits, Hot Spots, Highlighting, Evaluating Matrix* and *Advantages Limitations & Unique Potentials.* (Treffinger, 1994; Treffinger & Nassab, 1997).

Students need instruction in these thinking areas by either using the creative problem solving process with practice problems or by teaching the tools and steps in isolation. The integrated teaching of the tools within the process is a much stronger method. These tools can be taught through the regular curriculum or by using the practice problems offered by Future Problem Solving.

The Future Problem Solving's approach, based on the Creative Problem Solving framework, is divided into three major components:

1. Understanding the problem,
2. Generating ideas, and
3. Planning for action.

Within these components are a number of different steps. In competition the process looks and operates in a linear way, using a step by step procedure. However, in real life situations the process becomes circular. Problem solving can be thought of as a continuous circle that can be entered at any place in the circle using the components and steps as needed for the situation at hand. (Isaksen et all, 1994; Treffinger et all, 1997).

For the China presentation the AZFPS team developed the following explanations of the components and the steps.

Understanding the Problem

Researching the Topic and Analyzing the Future Scene, a hypothetical scenario on the topic, are two areas to address before problem solving starts.

(a) Research the Topic: To identify challenges and problems posed by the Future Scene, the team members must first begin by thoroughly researching the topic. The more that is known about the topic, the more likely the team can identify the challenges and create solutions that are effective,creative and relevant.

(b) Analyze the Future Scene: The team works together by thoroughly reading, analyzing and discussing the Future Scene.

The specific steps of the Future Problem Solving approach are as follows:

Step 1. Identify and Select Key Challenges: In the first formal step in Future Problem Solving, the team works to identify many varied and unusual challenges found within the Future Scene by generating facts, connections, and data from the research. Then the team elaborates on broad and specific areas by telling what the challenge is and why it is a challenge by looking at the causes and effects.

Step 2. Identify Possible Underlying Problems and Select One: The team identifies the challenge they believe to be the most significant to the situation. The team writes this Underlying Problem in question form beginning with "In what ways might we" or "How might we." These phrases make it possible to create a wide variety of solutions. The team chooses a direction to follow and states this in a positive manner and indicates the purpose or goal of their action.

Generating Ideas

Step 3. Generate and Focus Solution Ideas: After the Underlying Problem is chosen, solutionsare generated. It is important to come up with many ideas, but it is also important to remember to include who will create and carry out these ideas and how or why the plan will solve the Underlying Problem.

Planning for Action

Steps 4 & 5. Generate and select criteria: In these steps, the team generates specific criteria to evaluate which solution will best solve their Underlying Problem. Solutions are ranked on an evaluation grid to determine the best solution.

Step 6. Develop an Action Plan: Elaboration and development of the best solution into an Action Plan occur in this step. The solution is described in detail including who will carry out the plan, what the plan is, how it solves the Underlying Problem and how the plan relates back to the topic as a whole while showing a positive impact on society.

The team creates a skit-presentation to demonstrate the effectiveness of their Action Plan by elaborating on their Underlying Problem and Best Solution so that they can show their ideas to an audience in a form other than the written packet. (Treffinger et all, 1997).

At the 1997 China-U.S. Conference on Education in Beijing, the U.S. Future Problem Solvers were able to put their problem solving skills in action when they worked with other Chinese and U.S. students in the Interactive Learning Center, the student component of the Conference. The student groups from both countries identified problems, concerns, issues or challenges occurring within the countries. Each student group examined their list, marked the common concerns and then decided which specific area to address. The areas of concern identified by the students were Equality in Education, Air Pollution, Poverty and Overcrowding. Each group created a visual model of their common problem and took pictures of the model. The pictures were scanned into the computer and placed on the Internet sites that the group developed. These projects can be viewed on the Internet sites of Interactive Learning Center (www.goodnet.com/~global/gilc.html) or FPS (www.fpsp.org/events). Unfortunately, time ran out before the student groups could generate many solutions and plan for action on their problems. The intent of the Interactive Learning Center was, by having the problems on the net site students would be able to continue to add information, solutions and action plans. However, at this time no more action has been taken, and the net site is only a viewing place for last summer's project.

The Interactive Learning Center demonstrated that students from different countries and cultures can use Future Problem Solving and work together. When students use the tools to address challenges, issues and concerns, they practice and apply many creative and critical thinking skills. Students learn to assess their thinking, and to choose appropriate practices to fit their challenges. Use of the Future Problem Solving Model takes students beyond just looking forinformation that contains one right answer. Students must use the information they have gained to generate solutions to solve their challenge. These strategies help students address the real-life challenges they face and provide a connection of the present to the future. Future Problem Solving students are solving the challenges of tomorrow— today.

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Chapter Seven

Transformative Dimensions of Mentoring: Implications for Practice in the Training of Early Childhood Teachers

Arlene Martin & June Trueax

The field of early care and education continues to struggle with the challenging problems of how to provide high-quality care to young children from birth to age 6. There continue to be poorly prepared staff, inadequate standards of care, high staff turnover, low wages and benefits and poor working conditions for a predominantly female work force. However, consistent and systematic professional development may change these conditions and begin to make progress toward professionalizing the field. Professional development has become recognized as an important force in bringing about quality improvement in the field of child care and is receiving national attention and support. The concept of mentoring in early childhood education is viewed as a prominent strategy in this effort to professionalize early childhood staff. In this newly emerging area, current research lacks studies exploring the depth of the mentoring relationship and the promise it holds for promoting professional and personal development.

A review of current literature concludes that mentoring has emerged as a significant process in the professional development of beginning and new teachers. Mentoring has recently surfaced in the professional development movement within early childhood education as a tool for retaining early childhood staff and promoting the growth and development of novice and master teachers. Mentoring may also serve as a renewal for master teachers (Stevens, 1995) and form a new career level within the early childhood profession.

This paper reviews the results of a qualitative study of the perceptions of mentoring by early childhood teachers. In the fall of 1996, in-depth interviews, videotaped three-way interviews, and profiles of mentor/protégé dyads were conducted with ten participants from the California Early Childhood Mentor Teacher Program. The study defines the literature on mentoring in three areas: (a) the development of effective mentoring models for staff development, (b) the professionalization of both mentors and protégés, and (c) the building of early childhood advocates and leaders through mentorship practice.

The Research Basis for Infusion of Mentoring in Early Childhood

Research on mentoring teachers is found in the literature on adult development in higher education. It has surfaced in the early childhood literature only in the last ten years as a practice to promote the growth and professional development of the various levels of staff who care for and educate young children. Currently there exist 15 national mentor-teacher programs in early childhood education (Ferraer, 1994). Literature on mentoring is derived from business and from adult higher education, from theoretical bases of adult learning and teacher development. Research on the mentoring phenomenon and studies conducted in teacher education, especially studies on the induction of new teachers, provided the ground for this study. Literature related to transformation of the adult learner was essential in addressing the guiding questions in this study.

An important trend in the professional development of early childhood practitioners is the growing use of mentoring as a strategy to recruit and retain novice staff in diverse early care and education settings. Mentoring has also been found to offer mature staff opportunities to renew and revitalize their careers. Currently, the literature on mentoring lacks comprehensive studies on the nature and effects of mentoring on both the mentor and the protégé.

Theories of adult learning and teacher development were reviewed as they related to the mentoring concept in professional development. Development is viewed across the life span and learning theories are seen through a constructivist perspective. Erikson (1959), Gould (1978), Kegan (1982), Loevinger (1952), Oja (1980) and Piaget (1952) provide theories of adult development and acquisition of knowledge. Recent reform efforts within the context of school restructuring and the professional development of teachers have led to studies on mentor-teacher programs in public schools and in higher education. These studies have related the effects of mentoring on the induction of new teachers, retention of experienced teachers, and assistance and support of beginning teachers. A number of studies on the process of transformation in adult development were reviewed. Daloz (1986), Levinson (1978) and Mezirow (1991) each describe the mentoring phenomenon as a transformational process.

The literature on transformation provided constructs for supporting mentoring as a professional development practice (Levinson et al., 1978; Daloz, 1986; Mezirow, 1991) and for applying it to the field of early care and education. Metaphors for this transformational process found in the emergent themes of journey, story and gift-giving (Daloz, 1986; Gehrke, 1988; Parkay, 1988) assisted in unfolding the dimensions and phases inherent in the relationship which were identified in this research study. The process of mentoring found within mentor/protégé dyads acts as a powerful change agent transforming both mentor and protégé (Whitebook and Sakai, 1995; Bellm, Whitebook and Hnatiuk, 1996).

Key components of mentoring models drawn from the literature of selected induction studies include:

(a) elements of a formal selection process;
(b) the importance of mentor dispositions;
(c) a willingness to share expertise in instructional strategies, i.e. communication, feedback and observation skills; and
(d) reflective practice.

Orientation and preparation of a mentor should utilize the literature on adult development, developmental supervision and transformation theory. Included within that content base are areas specific to the art and practice of teaching, developing instructional strategies and promoting effective interpersonal relations.

Transformative Dimensions of Mentoring: The Research Study

The broad research question asked, What does a mentoring experience mean to a mentor and a protégé, and how has it benefited both mentor and protégé in a mentoring relationship? Subquestions asked: In the perceptions of early childhood mentors and protégés, what processes occur within the context of a mentoring relationship that change or transform the personal and professional development of the mentor and the protégé?

The research design for this descriptive study used in-depth interview methods and the resulting profiles of the mentor/protégé dyads to answer the broad research question. Since this is an interpretive study of teachers' perceptions of mentor-teacher relationships in early childhood programs, a qualitative approach was considered best suited to inductive inquiry in a naturalistic setting (Merriam, 1991, p.19). The California Early Childhood Mentor Teacher Program was chosen for this study of five mentor/protégé dyads because it is the oldest and largest of the 15 national early childhood mentor-teacher training programs in the United States (Ferrar, 1994). The CECMTP serves as a national model among mentor teacher training programs in early childhood.

Subjects in this study were selected from 25 discussion group participants interviewed in a pilot study June, 1996. The population included both mentor and protégé dyads. Research questions were pilot-tested and refined. Interviews scheduled in southern and northern California were conducted in November, 1996. Data collected from individual and three-way interviews (mentor, protégé and researcher) were transcribed. Three distinct levels of coding emerged from the data:

1. open coding,
2. focused coding and,
3. selective coding.

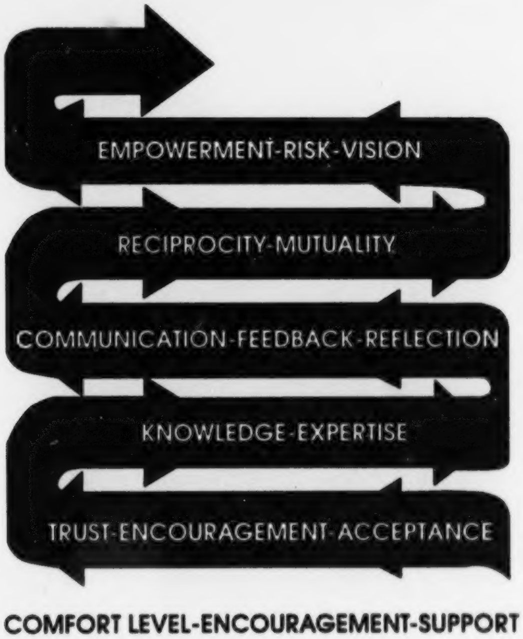
In level-one coding, 267 open codes were generated. Two levels of coding further reduced the keywords from 131 focused codes to 70 selective codes. In the second level of coding, items were grouped into larger categories:

strengths and weaknesses (within the relationship), dimensions, benefits (to mentor and protégé) and transformation (changes identified by subjects). Codes within these categories were further analyzed to isolate patterns, trends or themes. Next, the researcher identified the most prevalent themes and searched for relationships among the themes. In this third level of analysis, a more selective coding system was utilized in which the relationships of mentors and protégés were reviewed in order to generate patterns, themes or implicit theories.

Voices from the Field: Mentors and Protégés Talk About Meaning-Making and Experience

Transformation is not a mysterious process but a natural life event (Nerburn, 1997). It is a logical and natural aspect of the mentoring relationship that transformation occurs for both mentor and protégé. This section discusses the research findings, beginning with an overview of the dimensions within the mentoring relationship, a presentation of the general themes identified in the interview process, and the relationship of these dimensions to the process of transformation. A schematic diagram of the mentoring dimensions found is included.

Dimensions in Mentoring Relations Leading to Transformation in the Adult Learner


EMPOWERMENT-RISK-VISION
RECIPROCITY-MUTUALITY
COMMUNICATION-FEEDBACK-REFLECTION
KNOWLEDGE-EXPERTISE
TRUST-ENCOURAGEMENT-ACCEPTANCE
COMFORT LEVEL-ENCOURAGEMENT-SUPPORT

Dimensions Found in the Mentoring Processes

Dimensions integral to the mentoring process in the perceptions of the mentors and protégés interviewed in this study were first identified. It was useful to organize the dimensions into a non-stage construct in order to relate them to the concept of transformation. Study findings revealed that the dimensions were fluid rather than fixed processes; that is they appeared in the relationship in a nonlinear manner dictated by the individuals' personalities and learning styles. A framework using periods of relationship-building represents the notion that these dimensions build over time due to regularity, collaboration and reflection occurring in the mentoring relationship (Fenichel, 1992). These processes may occur simultaneously or independently throughout the life span of the relationship.

The most prevalent dimensions identified were: (a) trust, (b) openness and acceptance, (c) support, (d) encouragement and, (e) comfort level. These dimensions describe a period in which the mentor and protégé find each other, either formally or informally. Protégé voices suggest that the mentor identified something special within the protégé that initiated the relationship. One of the protégés said, "He saw something in me..." This period is characterized as a building of the relationship, which explains why trust was the most frequently cited dimension, followed by openness and acceptance, while encouragement, support and comfort level followed. In the ***relationship-building period***, these six dimensions were identified in each interview as important characteristics in establishing and maintaining an ongoing, authentic mentoring relationship.

Dimensions found in the next period–***a period for building an agenda***–emanated from the purpose for the existence of the relationship, which was to address content or instructional issues that would enable the protégés to become better practitioners in the field of early childhood education. Two dimensions emerged in the data that center on the mentor's skills of knowledge and expertise in the field of early childhood education. They are:

1. Knowledge encompasses the areas of child development, developmentally appropriate practices (DAP) and resources and instructional strategies, especially in the areas of guidance and curriculum development.
2. Expertise is defined by how competent the mentor is and what "gifts of wisdom" (Gherke, 1988) he or she brings to the relationship. It also includes years of experience in dealing with children and families, as well as expertise in problem-solving strategies.

In the following period, for ***building an information exchange***, three dimensions were found:

1. the processes of communication,
2. feedback and,
3. reflection.

Styles of communication and feedback featured prominently in this period of relationship development. These dimensions determined the level of authenticity and intensity the relationship would bear. Reflections on self and on others was significant for continued growth and progression toward transformation. It was evident in each dyad that this phase had the greatest divergence among the subjects in the areas of the individual's maturity, experience and life events. The dimension of reflection ensured the degree of intensity and authenticity within the dyads.

In the final periods, the change process was already occurring. This schema assumes that fluid processes occur in a nonlinear direction. The intensity and the authenticity of the relationship determine the temporal quality of the relationship and its subsequent transformative effect on both mentor and protégé. To put it simply, how quickly the relationship develops or progresses toward transformation is determined by the levels of intensity and authenticity involved. In the next period–***laying the groundwork for change***–the relationship moves from protégé dependency to a more collegial attitude in which the dimensions are responsible for the role reversals now seen within the maturingrelationship.

Finally, in a period of–***moving to transformation***–the roles have changed, the relationship is nearing its end, and a challenge from the mentor pushes the growth of the protégé. The dimensions of empowerment, risk and vision dominate this period. In a stage-related framework, this would symbolize the end of the mentoring relationship. However, participants in this study disclosed that their relationship had transformed them both personally and professionally, and the dynamic bonds of their relations kept them connected as friend and trusted colleague rather than as teacher and student.

Emergent Themes

The second level of data analysis generated the major themes that emerged in the research study and lent a structure to the development of relationships that were found in the final level of analysis. Themes surfaced through the searching of interview texts and keying in of selected codes that recurred throughout the interviews. In the open coding phase of the data analysis, 267 codes were reduced to 131 codes that recurred throughout the five cases. These codes were further categorized into 14 categories: benefit, change, closeness, comfort level, communication, confidence, empowerment, feedback, gifts and strengths, intimacy, not student teaching, openness and encouragement, reciprocity and risk.

Five major themes emerged in this level of coding, with 10 subthemes. Data analysis uncovered these themes from their recurrence throughout the fifteen in-depth interviews. The major themes identified in the perceptions of the mentors and protégés, universal to all cases, were:

1. Mentoring builds a foundation for growth and change.
2. Mentoring promotes personal development.
3. Mentoring promotes professional growth.
4. Mentoring changes both mentors and protégés.
5. Mentoring provides benefits to both mentors and protégés

Subthemes that emerged from these major themes were:

1. My mentor sees something in me ... permission to be who I am.
2. Mentors have something to share... gifts of wisdom.
3. Mentoring changed my self-perception and improved my practice.
4. Mentoring increased my self-esteem and self-confidence.
5. Mentoring changed me personally and professionally.
6. Mentoring promotes leadership and advocacy in the early childhood field.
7. Mentoring offers benefits and empowers each person
8. Mentoring offers renewal in the early childhood field.
9. Mentoring is more than student teaching.
10. Student teaching is not like mentoring.

Mentoring transforms individuals through the processes of empowerment, risk and vision, three of the dimensions found in this study of mentor/protégé perceptions. It transforms both mentor and protégé by providing them with opportunities and incentives to challenge them to continually improve their practice and their professional self. By seeing other ways, a new vision is developed that moves them beyond their comfort level, moves them to risk-taking, and in the process, empowers them to become a better teacher, a better professional, and a better person. For the mentor, mentoring is transformational in that it renews and revitalizes the seasoned practitioner by providing a new vision. Further, it adds new skills, status and financial reward. Mentoring creates opportunities for personal empowerment and professional growth as both practitioners become more reflective, a critical aspect of the mentoring relationship (Mezirow, 1991).

For protégés in the relationship, mentoring offers them a voice, a place to tell their stories and to be validated in their experiences. This experience of having a voice was expressed in each interview and represented a difference for them in the meaning of their relationship from the experience of the student teacher, since each of them shared classes with people who were not being mentored but were in traditional student-teaching roles. The protégés heard and felt these differences when they discussed their relationships during class seminars. Often the student teachers were jealous of the relationships mentors had with their protégés. Some wished they had chosen mentoring instead of student teaching, and others felt they had been cheated in their relationship because they weren't receiving the benefits of mentoring.

Protégés expressed perceived differences between mentoring and student teaching in terms of the regularity of their meetings and the fact that there was a mutual, reciprocal relationship in which each participant was learning from the other. Most importantly, protégés had a voice in getting what they needed from their relationships. They viewed student teaching as a nonreciprocal, one-way relationship in which the student's agenda was set by the cooperating teacher and as a result the relationship was imbalanced. Through mentoring, on the other hand, protégés were encouraged to find their voice, to use it and to further challenge their mentor with their voice, in the process of inquiry and risk.

Mentor/protégé voices affirmed their implicit theories that mentoring provided mentors with a renewal and revitalization in the field of early childhood. It provided protégés with an apprenticeship in which to learn new ways, practice new skills and build new ways of communicating. Participants believed that both mentor and protégé gave each other permission to be themselves and they were able to risk and create a new vision of themselves. They believed that the journey was worth the effort to better know themselves and finally the risk of losing that perception of self in search of a new, expanded version. Mentors and protégés believed that mentoring empowered them to become the advocates and leaders that the field of early childhood needs. Mentors were preparing themselves for larger advocacy and leadership roles, while protégés were preparing to become the next generation of mentors.

Components of a Mentoring Model

Studies of induction programs and recent initiatives in the field of early childhood provide elements and features of successful, effective mentoring models. The elements of regularity, collaboration and reflection surfaced in the literature on mentoring (Fenichel, 1992). Induction study findings indicate that there are common elements that support successful mentoring models. Such elements, identified throughout a range of induction studies, include:

1. selection of mentor dyads,
2. mentor dispositions,
3. preparation of the mentor teacher in the complexities of mentoring, and,
4. program content.

The relevance of these induction studies and their use of mentoring models demonstrates the significance of the mentor role in supporting and assisting new or beginning teachers.

The content which best prepares the mentor to work with a protégé comes from the literature on adult development and on developmental supervision. Developmental supervision offers the early childhood mentor teacher a support strategy and a nonjudgmental approach to providing observation, clear communication and feedback, and the strategies to identify the most important areas of new teacher (protégé) needs (Caruso and Fawcett, 1986; Glatthorn, 1987; Glickman, 1990). The content base in any preparation program must include:

1. adult and child development,
2. developmentally appropriate practices for working with adults as well as young children,
3. reflective practice and,
4. developmental supervision.

Other features of effective mentoring programs drawn from the mentoring literature included:

(a) the elements of a formal selection process and a formal vs. informal

mentoring program;
(b) mentor dispositions or characteristics;
(c) willingness to share expertise in instructional strategies and systems to provide communication;
(d) feedback and observation skills, and,
(e) reflective practice.

Orientation and mentor preparation are derived from the literature on adult development, developmental supervision and transformation theory. Included in its content base are areas specific to the art and practice of teaching, such as developing instructional strategies and promoting effective interpersonal skills. Finally, elements to ensure program effectiveness include:

1. rewards,
2. incentive and recognition for the mentors;
3. time to meet regularly and,
4. time to practice reflection and collaboration.

Developmental supervision is derived from a social work model of clinical supervision. It requires a non-judgmental approach to supporting the protégé's acquisition of job skills, and their personal and professional growth. Identifying the protégé's level of knowledge, skills, strengths, interests and learning styles, leads to the selection of the supervision approach used. This knowledge of the individual informs the mentoring process in many ways, one of which is in determining the choice of a directive, collaborative, or indirect approach to supervision. During the mentoring relationship, mentors may adopt each of these approaches as the protégé changes.

Summary of Findings

This study makes two significant contributions to the field of early childhood education. This is the first study of its kind on the depth and nature of the mentoring relationship for professionalization of staff in early childhood settings. The second contribution is that it provides evidence to support the concept of transformation for both mentor and protégé in their professional and personal development. In-depth interviews and dyad profiles revealed 16 dimensions which occur over time and ensure that the process of transformation is completed. Data analysis identified five major themes and ten subthemes which support the overarching research question, What does a mentoring relationship mean to a mentor and to a protégé, and how does it benefit each one personally and professionally? Findings revealed that mentors and protégés gained increased self-confidence and self-esteem and improved their practice. Each mentor and protégé recommitted to remain in the field of early childhood, renewed their professional interests, sought higher professional goals, and became more career-directed with interests in the areas of advocacy and leadership.

Though transformation does not occur within every mentoring relationship, the potential to transform is however available to everyone engaged in a mentoring relationship. A significant finding of the study indicated that transformation is inherent in the mentoring relationship. The 16 dimensions within the relationship which emerged in the findings ensure transformation. All participants perceived that they had transformed both personally and professionally through risk-taking, empowerment and vision change. Growth is change and change is risk. Risk empowers one to see in new ways, try new things and changes one's vision. Vision change transforms, and the transformative process is achieved within the mentoring role.

Mentoring offers the field of early childhood education strategies and supports to professionalize and expand its membership. It builds advocates and leaders in the field of early childhood education. It offers mentors revitalization and renewal, which offers them strong incentives to remain in their chosen field. It offers novice early-childhood teachers opportunities to gain new knowledge and skills, and new ways to approach the profession. It increases their self-confidence and self-esteem, improves their practice and makes them better professionals. Mentoring relationships transform the personal and professional domains of both mentor and protégé in the relationship. These findings offer strong promise for building a professional culture and for the professionalization of the membership in the early childhood field. Furthermore, mentoring provides for expansion of a new leadership and advocacy in early childhood. Mentoring also offers a hope for the infusion of mentoring models into the teacher preparation programs and the in-service training programs to support new-teacher preparation and staff development within the field of early childhood education.

Implications for Educational Practice

The training, education and supervision of early childhood staff present many challenges to staff-development planners and administrators. Such personnel most often come to their positions with limited educational backgrounds. Research indicates that education and training are vital to the delivery of high-quality early childhood services. Furthermore, trained staff are essential to ensure the mental health and well-being of young children in nonmaternal settings. Early childhood environments constitute especially difficult settings for training and supervision, since routine chores, rigorous daily tasks and the continuity of care necessary for providing for high-quality relationships must prevail. As a result, formal in-service training and ongoing regular and collaborative supervision are necessary. For this reason, mentoring is crucial. Mentoring models support helping relationships relevant to early childhood programs. In environments that are often isolated and lacking mechanisms for formal in-service training programs, mentoring models offer a new paradigm for education and supervision within the context of the early childhood community.

Mentoring provides a rationale for the integration of theory and best practice and a means to offer staff practical approaches to the personal rigors of caring for and educating young children. Within the mentor/protégé relationship lies a mechanism for translating the dynamic and powerful model of the caregiver/child relationship described by Parkay (1988) as a mirror of the parent/child relationship. Mentoring as a "relationship for learning" (Fenichel, 1992) suggests that mentoring is a suitable and practical vehicle for training and supervision among all levels of early childhood staff.

In the field of early childhood, mentoring offers opportunities to train staff to a new professional level. It offers a promising mechanism for inducting new staff and retaining older, experienced staff. The nature of the mentoring relationship provides a powerful, intimate role that matches the nature of the early childhood professional within his or her work setting. It offers staff members ongoing supervision and regular reflection. It can also help staff to develop individual goals and create an awareness of the professional self, thus promoting professional development.

As a profession, early childhood is experiencing tremendous growth and change as a result of the demand for program expansion. Staffing issues pose critical problems in all types of early care and education settings. The practices found in most early childhood environments allow for easy acceptance and inclusion of mentoring models into their training, supervision and staff development. Despite some cautions offered in the mentoring literature, the transformational power of the mentoring relationship itself is what appeals to the educator and merits the most attention within the early childhood community.

Mentoring as a strategy in the professional development of early childhood educators can be a significant tool for supporting and assisting new and beginning teachers and can also provide renewal and rejuvenation to more experienced teachers (Arin-Krupp, 1985; Killian, 1990; Stevens, 1995). Though it is only within the past 10 years that mentor training programs have emerged in the field of early childhood education, these programs suggest promising practices for the field and are now being evaluated for positive outcomes.

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Chapter Eight

The Building: An Adaptation of Francis Debyser's Writing Project. A Global Simulation to Teach Language and Culture

Michèle Claude Magnin

The following is a very succcessful class activity for the foreign language classroom. It can be used to teach English as a second language, as well as Cantonese, Spanish, Vietnamese or Italian. Professors in Spain, Germany, Cuba, Italy, French Polynesia, and Hungary have practiced this idea in very different environments and at different levels: this activity can be carried out with students starting at age eleven or twelve all the way through young and mature adults attending university or continuing education classes. It provides opportunities to teach oral language skills as well as written proficiency.

A Global Simulation

This class activity is called a "global simulation," i.e. a simulation that allows students to encounter situations that include love, life and death. It is a place where culture and experiences convene, and where a world is constructed using a foreign language in a playful atmosphere. It is different from the kind of simulation offered by many language textbooks which are restricted to one situation, as in the following example: "You arrive in a hotel and the clerk cannot find your reservation. Imagine the dialog between you and the clerk." This, although a culturally rich situation, is rather limited.

Compare it to the following examples of:

global simulations	**&**	**functional simulations**:
Islands		the hotel
the building		the business enterprise
the village		the international conference
the circus		the hospital

Here is a very brief description of three of these simulations to offer a better idea of the wide range of possibilities:

1. *Islands:* Imagine that a group of people in a shipwreck arrives on a deserted island. They form a new community, invent their

environment and define it, determine the rules by which they will live. Students negotiate in the target language and each role is distributed: who will get the water, the wood for the fire, hunt or fish for food, cook, build boats, etc. The shape of the island, the fauna and flora are invented. The simulation of the island can terminate on a happy note such as a rescue.

2. *The village:* A site and a time period are chosen. Each villager selects an identity starting with a name, age and occupation. The professions will be those needed to support the population of the village. A historical past can be invented for the village with a local hero whose biography can be written. Students imagine the claim to fame of the village (cheese, car factory, monument), folklore and customs, the architecture of the houses. A newspaper can be created to report the local events. This simulation can end on a positive note such as the visit of a high-ranking official or a major festive celebration. It can also end on a creative note such as the historiography of the village by a famous writer.
3. *The hotel:* First a setting must be chosen (city, beach, mountain) and a category (luxury or cheap) to determine the type of clientele. Then two groups have to select their identity: the employees of the hotel (a good review of the professions from the bell boys to the managers) and the customers (a group of tourists, a family from Ohio, a singer on tour, or a group of teachers attending a conference). The students learn about the daily running of a hotel, write a promotional flyer to attract tourists; they can also reproduce and fill out the forms. Major events or incidents can occur (floods, official visitors, thefts)

Each of these can be integrated into a variety of curricula, from a conversation class to a culture and civilization or writing class at intermediate to advancedlevels. Functional simulations are particularly well adapted to the curricula of specialty language class:

1. Business English (the business enterprise, the hotel, and the international conference)
2. English for hotel management and tourism (the hotel)
3. English in the health professions (the hospital)

Each can lead to a final masterpiece such as a novel written collectively, or a play, or an exhibit for the artistic work created during the simulation (posters, maps, pictures). Students should be able to look forward to this concrete conclusion throughout the project.

The building is a great tool to teach a variety of writing styles, and techniques, syntax, vocabulary and culture. At the same time it offers the appeal of a playful activity. This idea was published by Francis Debyser in 1980 (Hachette) and was first used during teacher workshops at the BELC[1] and the CIEP[2] in France as early as 1978. Adapting it to the use of electronic mail and the world wide web seemed logical, efficient and beneficial to the students. We crossed this threshold at the University of San Diego in 1995.

This activity constitutes less than half of the composition class curriculum: it is used in conjunction with grammar exercises and textual analysis and closely integrated. For instance, writing about the childhood of the tenants, the review of the past and reading an autobiographical text are carefully intertwined. When the students describe their new identity, we analyze texts exemplifying the technique of the physical or psychological portraits, while reviewing the use of adjectives and adverbs.

First we will describe the activity and its cultural components.

The Building

The students become the tenants in a building. They are going to "pretend" or "make believe" two things:

1. to live someplace else
2. to be someone else

If the foreign language taught is English, the building can be located in New York, Los Angeles, or London. Then, students choose a name and an identity. They will describe themselves in a personal journal, and in compositions that will be read by the rest of the class. Very quickly, a sense of community is born, and interactions in the building become very lively as the teacher develops ideas for the students to write about. Invitations are made, encounters take place, incidents occur in the building, and major events in the city affect tenants' lives. For Chinese students, you can explain or relate the type of communal life of the building as being similar to that in a ***danwei***. When the characters have become familiar with each other and a good dynamic is well established within the group, it is time to write together a detective story taking place in the building. The experience culminates with the theatrical production of a scene from the detective story or mini-novel, where the students play their part in a dialog they have written.

Teaching Culture

The **city** where your building is, the **people** who live there, and the local **customs** they practice will be the vehicles to teach culture.

1. THE CITY

The choice of a city is the first step. When teaching English as a second language in China, you may decide at the beginning that you prefer to teach about the United States rather than England.

- Comparing **maps** of Shanghai and the Los Angeles area sets off differences in the layout. Los Angeles offers many grids and few circular patterns except when urban development followed the natural layout of the terrain such as canyons, and steep hills.
- **Streets** provide many cultural insights through the width of the streets and sidewalks, thenumber of pedestrians, the look and number of cars.

- The **architecture** of the buildings are good indicators: Are there shops on the bottom floor, offices or apartments above, windows that open, balconies?
- **Interior decoration** illustrates lifestyles. An American kitchen usually displays a microwave oven and a toaster. Television sets appear in the family room, bedrooms and sometimes even in kitchens, showing the importance of this medium in the culture.

2. THE PEOPLE

The second step is the choice of an identity as a tenant in the building. Each student will choose a name (it can indicate ethnic origin), an age (*all* the students should not "pretend" to be a 15 or 20 year-old student living in a foreign country to learn the language), a gender and a profession or occupation, hobbies, family members and friends:

- Some professions and occupations could be, according to age and sex: (a) shopkeeper, (b) secretary, (c) salesman, (d) cook, (e) ballerina, (f) lawyer, (g) artist, (h) poet, (i) journalist, (j) housewife, (k) baseball player, (l) telephone operator, (m) retired teacher, (n) hotel receptionist, (o) doctor, (p) student, (q) truck driver, (r) accountant.
- Hobbies: (a) sports or movies, (b) reading, (c) dancing, (d) gardening, (e) playing cards, (f) singing. Each of these hobbies gives an opportunity to describe very different places and the people who practice these activities, the way they dress, and interact.
- families can be small or large, the tenant can be very sociable and have many friends or be a loner.

3. THE CUSTOMS

Local customs provide many opportunities for interaction and meaningful communication as well as chances to ask questions and learn. As you read the following list of topics,picture these activities in another English-speaking country very different from the United States (India, Jamaica, South Africa or Australia).

- Getting settled and meeting the neighbors, colleagues or shopkeepers.
- Meeting people in the street or in the apartment building - informal invitations, greetings, polite phrases.
- Opening a bank account, obtaining telephone service, utilities, newspaper delivery.
- Furnishing the apartment.
- Shopping for groceries.
- Major holidays (Christmas, New Year, Valentine's day, Easter, Memorial Day[3], 4th of July, Labor day, Halloween and Thanksgiving), birthday parties, baby showers, school reunions, graduations.
- Etiquette for using technology (telephone, answering machines, faxes).
- An inheritance (who is it from, and what is it).

- Looking for work: an opportunity to discuss resumé writing. Also a chance for students to look at their own future and ambitions, and to compare work conditions (hours, salary, promotions).
- A serious problem at work with a look at solutions and customary ways to handle the situation.
- Shopping for a car (and a look at public transportation available). going on vacation (where, and with whom).
- Life in the building a hundred years ago (a little history).
- Moving away. (To conclude: the building will be destroyed to make room for a shopping mall, the celebration of ten years spent in the building, or a reunion).

These are all opportunities to discover a different world, to communicate and use the target language, in this case, English, either in oral or written contexts. They constitute incentives that will motivate the students to find out more about each of these topics, to explore and learn the vocabulary to deal with them. The instructor can be the main provider of information and bring pictures, slides, or movies to class. Students can do their own research at the library or on the Web. This information can be compiled in files kept by the students on index cards or computer files, and shared with the rest of the class.

Teaching Writing

As mentioned above, the students write a personal journal as the tenant. They also write essays or compositions. The topics assigned contribute to make the building come to life, by allowing the tenants to describe themselves, their activities, and their interactions with other tenants.

The journals are not corrected in a detailed fashion. This is an extensive writing exercise where students write freely, and structure is not as important as developing ideas. Encouraging comments are made, and explanations are given to help the student understand a couple of important syntactical points, but not too many. It is a way to develop arguments freely about their character. Topics for this exploration are given each week and constitute a preparation for the compositions.

The compositions are written twice. On the first draft, the instructor indicates with a code the types of mistakes made (i.e. "T" for tense, "S" for spelling). The students make the appropriate corrections and turn in the second draft. (Both are graded.) This is intensive writing, great efforts are made to produce a near perfect text. The topics call for a variety of styles and techniques: (a) the portrait, (b) the parody, (c) narration and dialogues, (d) summaries and amplification exercises. Students write individually as well as collectively and in the second case, they correct each others' work.

Adapting The Building To The Use Of Internet

The importance of the communicative aspect of this written activity makes its adaptation to the use of internet particularly beneficial. It is essential for the information to circulate quickly to each tenant so they learn who their neighbors are, and can start interacting faster. Photocopying would be very costly and time consuming. Electronic mail is very fast and a message can be sent to one or 20 students with no extra effort thanks to a class list established. It is also entirely free to both the instructor and the students.

Infrastructure And Procedures

The procedures and equipment used at the University of San Diego are as follows:

1. Class meets three times a week for 50 minutes in a regular classroom. Except for the first class session where a short orientation in the computer laboratory is needed, students write and use the computers outside of class time.
2. Students have access to computer labs during the day or in the evening on the university campus.
3. Students each have their own personal e-mail account with an internet address and a password. It allows them to send and receive messages and pictures electronically. They also have unlimited access to the world wide web where they can obtain information on many different topics, such as geography, music, news, history, art or sports and many more.
4. Professors also have e-mail accounts, and can create a web site where pertinent information and useful links are gathered. It is updated regularly with new URLs.
5. Individual comments and are sent by e-mail. The students receive them almost immediately. But it is just like regular mail: if you do not open your mailbox, you do not know that you have a letter waiting. Therefore, it is extremely important to make sure the students check their e-mail regularly and to send essential messages from the very beginning. E-mail must become a daily habit. Pen-pals on the internet are a good way to reinforce this habit.
6. The instructor's role in showing all the pertinent resources available on the web is crucial. The following can all be used to enrich the "invention" of the building and its environment: (a) dictionaries, (b) encyclopedias, (c) maps, (d) paintings, (e) catalogs, (f) tourist information, (g) facts about demography, (h) climate, (i) history and the economy of many countries, (j) data on major companies, their products and hiring policies,
7. Students who are computer literate can create their own web site with a picture of the virtual building, photographs or drawings of the tenants, their biographies, and maps.

8. Towards the middle of the semester, a detective story takes place in the building. The class is divided into groups of three students who draft an outline of the plot. The best one is selected by vote. Each group then writes a chapter of the mini-novel which will be published at the end of the semester. A scene of the detective story is selected to be rewritten as a dialogue which the students will play in front of the others. It is a renewed opportunity for the student to express their creativity through language, acting, staging, and props.
9. During this mini-play, the instructor can take photographs to be included in the publication. It is the confirmation of their work and a goal during the semester. The scenes can also be videotaped.
10. The compositions and the journals written on the computer look professional. It is an accomplishment the students can take pride in, take home and show their parents or friends.
11. The simulation can be taken beyond the classroom. Two or more classes can cooperate and have neighboring buildings. Professors can organize exchanges and common projects electronically throughout the world.

Conclusion

To ensure the success of this project, it is essential:

(a) to be open-minded about the outcome,
(b) to circulate information fast,
(c) to facilitate exchanges between students, and
(d) to use the tenants' characters and current events to enliven the dynamic of the building and create stimulating interactions.

When using the internet, make sure that you:

(a) use e-mail efficiently,
(b) encourage students,
(c) are present whenever technical problems arise to help students find solutions before they become discouraged, and
(d) provide guidance to explore the web

Global simulations have been around now for twenty years. They have engendered abundant enthusiasm with teachers and students alike. Students remember this experience with excitement and, a year or two later, still recall how they enjoyed the class because of this activity, and how they never before, or since, enjoyed writing so much in a class. For the professor, it is a way of traveling outside of the classroom and to foster active participation from the students. It is also a perfect vehicle to create a multi-cultural learning environment.

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Footnotes:

[1] Bureau de l'Enseignement des Langues et de la Culture

[2] Centre International d'Etudes PÈdagogiques

[3] similar to Qing Ming Festival in China

Chapter Nine

Report Cards: Stepping Away from Tradition.

Sharon L. Whittle

Why Change the Reporting System?

One of the primary aspects of a reporting system is to maintain consistency between what is taught, what is tested, and what is reported to parents. Over the last decade, what was being taught was not reflected on the report card. It was increasingly difficult to assess student progress in some subject areas with a traditional numerical percentage grade from zero to one hundred. Process writing is an example of a subject in which teachers were experiencing a dilemma in grading. It was inaccurate to assign a numerical percentage to reflect a student's written piece.

Parents began to ask for more information about their child's achievement in each subject area. One letter grade derived from averaging test scores did not portray accurate information. In addition, grading varied among teachers depending upon testing practices. Consistency was difficult to maintain from classroom to classroom. Students and parents were not clear about expectations from one subject area to another.

This paper will highlight one school district's experience in changing how student progress is reported to parents. The York Suburban School District enrolls 2,300 (kindergarten through grade 12) and is located 25 miles south of the state capital of Harrisburg, and 100 miles north of Washington, DC. Parents are actively involved in their children's education, 80 percent who are bound for college. The teaching staff is stable with an average of 18 years teaching experience. The York Suburban teachers are interested in providing more information to parents, showing students' growth over a period of time, and assessing growth in a more accurate context than numerical percentages derived from averages. It was time to examine and reassess the reporting system for students in the elementary division of kindergarten to grade five.

Planning

A literature search was generated to obtain current information regarding grading practices. It is important to establish a common base of information for the committee. Prior experiences and prejudices must be deferred in order to have the freedom for new ideas to be suggested and cultivated.

A statewide request for existing report cards utilized by other school districts in Pennsylvania was initiated. Another school district's experience might benefit our search.

The reporting system committee was formed to include teachers, parents, and administrators. For an encompassing decision such as grading, it was decided to make the committee membership as broad based as possible. The Parent Teacher Association in each elementary school selected the parents to participate. To gather information about views on the current report card, a survey of parents and teachers was distributed. Respondents were asked for items to be deleted, continued, or added to the report card. Results were tallied for future reference.

Time Line

The time line for the new report card was estimated to be three to five years. The first year included the steps of exploration of ideas, developing common themes, a reporting system philosophy and beliefs, and developing skill areas for the progress report.

During the second year, an initial design was initiated, debated and tested. Parent meetings were held to explain the new format. Many teacher team meetings were used to refine ideas.

After the first distribution of the new design, another survey was taken of the parents and teachers. The next set of revisions was initiated for the third year.

We are completing the third year of the project. Some additional revisions are being made for next year. Overall, surveys have indicated positive reactions and satisfaction with the clarity of the report from parents and teachers.

Process

Changing a traditional reporting system is a difficult journey to take since teachers and parents have strong opinions of grading based upon their previous experiences. In order to insure a long lasting and permanent change in the philosophy of a reporting system, a process approach was utilized at York Suburban School District. The process includes five steps.

1. Exploring Phase

During the first meeting it was crucial to establish the purpose and method of operating. The first focus was to revise the current report card. Members were given the responsibility of being the liaison to the group they represented. They were taught the process of brainstorming ideas and consensus building.Cooperative group techniques were utilized for discussion. Group roles were outlined and group composition continually changed to avoid power cliques. Committee members needed to experience a change in their beliefs toward assessment practices. A common knowledge base was formed from research articles which led to common themes.

2. *Deciding Phase*
   - Common themes and ideas led to the development of a philosophy of our reporting system with guiding beliefs. Establishment of a philosophy and guiding beliefs provides the building blocks for change. When the new format is questioned, the beliefs help to support the new progress report.
   - The reporting system philosophy states that each student is unique, capable of learning, and entitled to attain his or her greatest potential which follows our school district vision statement. Several changes were developed. First, teachers were empowered to express their professional judgment about academic performance. Second, the new progress report would be a summary of student performance, and only one element of the entire reporting system.
   - More specific details were listed in the guiding beliefs. Assessment of student performance would be with a variety of methods. Knowledge would not be assessed in only a right or wrong format. As an example, teachers would summarize observable data to show growth over time in reading fluency, writing proficiency, and speaking ability. Student learning will be conveyed with more than a single grade and include process, product, and performance.
   - Skill lists for each subject area were developed. Preferred categories were suggested for the new design. Teachers began to develop observational data sheets (referred to as "clipboard cruising") to collect student learning information for each category.

3. *Designing Phase*

   Taking the list of preferred categories to design the actual format can best be completed by one person. Various designs can be reviewed by the committee to reach a consensus on a prototype.

4. *Review Phase*

   The new progress report format was implemented during the second year of the project. Teacher staff development, parent informational meetings, and surveys were conducted. It is important to understand the change process during this phase: the vision and philosophy must be constantly restated to avoid confusion. Training is a necessary component to relieve anxiety for teachers and parents, and teaching the techniques to collect information for the progress report helps alleviate teacher frustration.

5. Completion Phase

A survey of parents and teachers yielded additional revisions for the third year of the project. The progress report is now designed to be reviewed yearly in order to reflect what is currently being taught.

New Progress Report Design

The school year has 185 days, and is organized into thirds, with a progress report sent to parents after each 62-day period. The progress report is a summary of student learning, and one component of the entire reporting system. After the first 32 school days, a parent/student/teacher conference is required to review the student portfolio, share teachers' observations, and set goals for the year.

Curriculum

Language Arts is a major category on the progress report which includes skills in the areas of reading, speaking, and writing. Skill categories include observation of independent reading, understanding of text, following written directions, and understanding vocabulary. The level of reading is marked as (a) independent (without assistance), (b) guided (some assistance), or, (c) dependent (frequent assistance). Speaking shows how the student expresses ideas and participates in discussions. Writing includes the ability to write independently, organize ideas, choose appropriate words, and mechanics of writing.

Mathematics shows the student's knowledge of basic facts, computation, concepts, and problem solving skills. Social studies, and science/health areas describe the student's understanding of basic facts and application of concepts in discussions and projects. Related arts comprise the subject areas of art, music, physical education, and library science.

Under each curricular area, the student receives an assessment for each skill instead of one grade to summarize the entire subject. A sentence designating if assignments are completed in a timely and satisfactory manner is included for each subject.

Progress Scale

Assessment categories are no longer defined on the sole basis of a percentage grade. Student achievement may be in one of four categories. The lowest category is designated by a numeral *one* and means minimal progress with significant guidance and support. The next category of *two* shows progress is developing with guidance and support. The category of *three* demonstrates capable progress with successful work and minimal support. The top category of *four* represents significant progress with independent work.

Work Habits and Social Development

Skills such as following directions, completing work, neatness, effort, and working in groups comprise the area of work habits. Social Development consists of self control, getting along with others, obeying rules, respect, responsibility, and courteous behavior. Each skill is judged and placed in one of following three categories: (a) the student consistently demonstrates, (b) adequately demonstrates, or, (c) occasionally demonstrates.

Comments

An extensive comment section is provided for detailed feedback on student behavior and effort for each subject. Comments are organized into categories of adaptations in curriculum, instruction, or assessment, achievement, effort, assignments/homework, work habits, behavior, and attendance.

The dilemma faced in providing teacher comments is one of available time. Parents prefer a longer narrative from teachers about their child's progress. The amount of time to write lengthy descriptions of each student's achievement is an area of concern for teachers. We are currently using a number notation system that refers to specific behaviors. The numbers are to save time for teachers, but the system is awkward. Development of a computerized report would provide typed comments for each skill area without using numbers.

Cautions

1. Following a process approach is difficult for people, the tendency is to jump to the end result immediately. It becomes necessary to constantly restate each phase of the process and the direction of the committee. Establishing a philosophy and guiding beliefs is strongly encouraged.
2. Decision making for teachers with parents on the committee is new and demanding. Time must be taken to encourage participation.
3. Recognition of the teachers' continuum of knowledge and experience is necessary. Extensive staff development is crucial to the process of change.
4. Communication must be developed between meetings. Visits to each building and discussions with each group represented promotes consensuses.
5. A long recess in the schedule, such as summer vacation, can impede the progress of the committee.
6. Administrators in each school building need to keep a positive and united front.

Summary

Inviting parents to participate in a decision making committee at the beginning of the process was a new step for the school district. Parents who served on the committee were fundamental components to promoting the new progress report.

Committee members are proud of their accomplishment and continue with their enthusiasm as we enter the fourth year. Parents, teachers, and students are pleased with the new format. The new progress report met our need to provide more information to parents in an appropriate format.

Reporting System Change Process

EXPLORING PHASE

- **Opinions**
- **Perceptions**
- **Facts**

DECIDING PHASE

- **Beliefs on Reporting**
- **Information Needs**
- **Purpose of Report Cards**
- **Grading Practices**
- **Style of Communicating**
- **Likes & dislikes**

DESIGNING PHASE

- **Preferred elements**
- **Style and shape**
- **Effectiveness**
- **Technology**
- **Flexibility**

REVIEW PHASE

- **Format developed**
- **Pilot test**

COMPLETION

- **Redesign**
- **Final format**

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Chapter Ten

Variability in Response to Life Transitions: Application of a Transition Model

Charlene M. Kampfe

Abstract

A model of social stress was used to discuss the variability of responses to potentially stressful events or transitions. The model suggests that a wide array of variables will influence an individual's response to an event and the outcome of that event. Among these variables are perceptions of the event, coping strategies used to respond to it, and possible conditioning variables that could directly or indirectly influence outcome.

Individuals have been found to respond differently to similar events or transitions (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Felton & Revenson, 1984; George, 1980, 1982; Kampfe, 1994; Kampfe & Kampfe, 1992; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1990, 1991a; Kampfe, Mitchell, Boyless, & Sauers, 1995; Mitchell & Kampfe, 1990, 1993; Seligman, 1985). Likewise, outcomes (e.g., psychological well-being or positive resolution of a situation) of similar events vary across people (Kampfe, 1998; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b). This variation in findings may be the result of intervening variables that directly or indirectly influence responses to an event (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Kampfe, 1989, 1998; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b; Lazarus, Kanner, & Folkman, 1980) or outcomes of an event (Cohen & Edwards, 1989; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b; 1998; Pearlin & Skaff, 1995).

The House Model of Social Stress (House, 1974), as modified by George (1980, 1982) and by Kampfe and Mitchell (Kampfe, 1998; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b), lends itself to the potentially complex interaction among variables associated with transitions. The model graphically depicts the notion that individuals respond to life transitions in a variety of ways because people have a wide array of experiences, personal resources, and social status factors, that can interact to influence perceptions of a transition, coping strategies used to respond to a transition, and the outcomes of a transition. The model also depicts the potential relationship among perceptions, coping strategies, and outcome.

The purpose of the presentation at the China-U. S. Conference on

Education was to describe the model and to encourage educators from both countries to apply it to themselves and to their students. The purpose of this paper is to describe both the model and the ways in which participants of the conference were asked to apply it to actual or hypothetical situations.

The Model

The model, as adapted for this paper, is comprised of five types of variables:

1. Conditions conducive to stress,
2. Perceptions,
3. Responses,
4. Conditioning variables, and
5. Outcomes (George, 1990, 1982: House, 1974)

The solid lines in Figure One represent potential relationships among the variables.

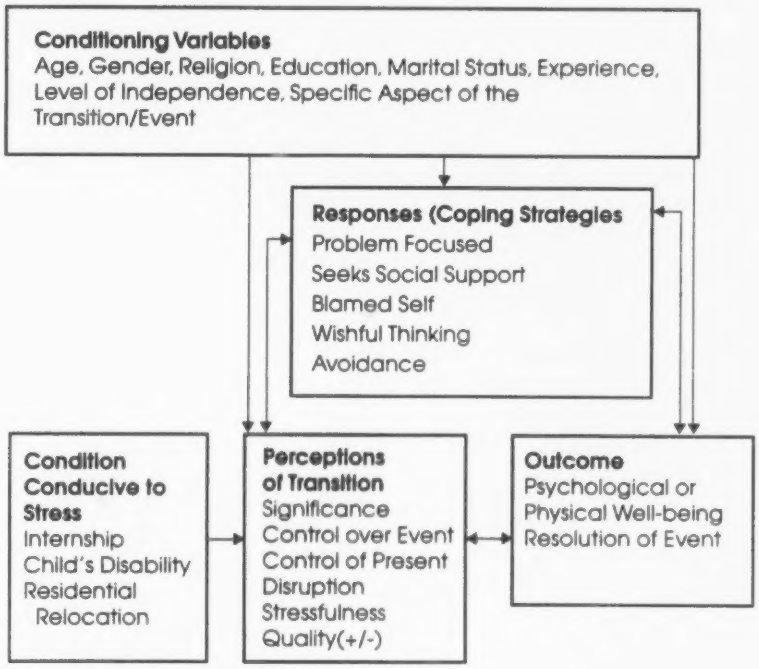
Conditioning Variables
Age, Gender, Religion, Education, Marital Status, Experience, Level of Independence, Specific Aspect of the Transition/Event
Responses (Coping Strategies
Problem Focused
Seeks Social Support
Blamed Self
Wishful Thinking
Avoidance
Condition Conducive to Stress
Internship
Child's Disability
Residential Relocation
Perceptions of Transition
Significance
Control over Event
Control of Present
Disruption
Stressfulness
Quality(+/-)
Outcome
Psychological or Physical Well-being
Resolution of Event

Figure 1. Modified version of House's social stress model. Adapted from "Occupational stress and coronary heart disease: A review and theoretical integration," J. House, 1974, *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 15*. p. 12-27. Copyright 1974 by the American Sociological Association. Adapted with permission.

Conditions Conducive to Stress

Conditions conducive to stress are an events or transitions that have the potential to produce stress. Examples of conditions conducive to stress are:

(a) internships of graduate college students (Kampfe, Levine, MacFarland, Smith, Topor, & McNamara, 1998; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1990, 1992; Mitchell & Kampfe, 1993);
(b) parenthood of a child with a disability (Kampfe, 1989; Mindell & Feldman, 1987), and,
(c) residential relocation of older people (George, 1980; Lieberman & Tobin, 1983).

Perceptions

Perceptions are subjective appraisals of the event or transition. The cognitive-phenomenological theory of psychological stress purports that perceptions of an event influence both responses to an event and outcomes of that event (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). The following perceptions are thought to have these influences and are all thought to relate to responses to an event or to outcomes of an event:

(a) Perception of importance/significance of an event (Folkman, Chesney, McKusick, Ironson, Johnson, & Coates, 1991; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986; Krause, 1994; Myers, 1990, Pearlin, 1991);
(b) perception of the controllability of an event (Blanchard-Fields & Robinson, 1987; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman et al., 1986; Kampfe, 1998; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b; Parks, 1984; Vitaliano, Russo, Carr, Maiuro, & Becker, 1985);
(c) perception of the disruption of an event (George, 1980; Kampfe & Mitchell;1991b);
(d) perception the stressfulness of an event (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; House, 1974: Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b; Paterson & Neufeld, 1989); and
(e) perception of the positive or negative quality of an event (Kampfe, 1998; Mirotznik & Ruskin, 1985; Siegler & George, 1983).

Responses

Responses are the coping strategies used to deal with a transition. Coping strategies have been categorized as problem-focused (i.e., used to control the situation itself), and emotion-focused (i.e., used to control emotions) (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, 1984; Folkman, Lazarus, Pimley, & Novecek, 1987). Although the research findings on coping are not always consistent, reports often indicate that people who use problem-focused coping strategies have a high sense of psychological well-being (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Felton & Revenson, 1984; Foster & Gallagher, 1986; Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b; McCrae, 1982; Mitchell, Cronkite, & Moos, 1983; Mitchell & Hodson, 1983; Rutman, 1988; Vitaliano, Katon, Russo, Maiuro, Anderson, & Jones 1987; Vitaliano, Maiuro, Russo, & Becker, 1987), whereas people who use emotion-focused strategies such as wishful thinking, blaming self, and avoidance have a low sense of psychological well-being (Felton & Revenson; Folkman et al., 1986). Findings regarding seeking social support coping strategies are mixed. For example, one study found that students who used seeking social support coping strategies had a higher sense of efficacy and a lower sense of disruption and stressfulness than students who did not use seeking social support (Kampfe & Mitchell, 1991b). In another similar study of older people, however, seeking social support was not found to relate to variables such as those in the previously discussed study of students (Kampfe, 1998).

Conditioning Variables

Conditioning variables are factors such as age, gender, religion, education, marital status, experience, degree of actual personal control associated with the transition or event, and some specific aspect of the transition or event itself. The model suggests that conditioning variables might influence perceptions of an event, the coping strategies used to respond to an event, or the outcome of an event. A literature review of the relationship between the many potential conditioning variables and other variables is beyond the scope of this article; however it can be noted that there are inconsistent findings depending upon the variables and the populations being studied.

Outcome

As previously indicated, outcome can be any variable that can be considered the ultimate dependent variable, and can include various measures of psychological well-being, health, or resolution of a situation. The model is based on the premise that outcome might be related directly or indirectly to any of the variables of the model.

Application of the Model at the China-U.S. Conference

In presenting the model in the past, I have found that practical examples and personal experiences seem to enhance participants' understanding of the potential relationships among the variables. Participants were, therefore, asked to look at an object (a potted plant) and to describe their perceptions of the object. Three individuals' responses (paraphrased) will be used here to illustrate the possible array of reactions to the plant:

(1) One individual saw the plant as being a living thing that had a stem and leaves with chlorophyll; that emitted oxygen; and that needed carbon dioxide, soil, fertilizer, and water to survive.
(2) A second individual saw the plant as a decorative item. He liked its color and design.
(3) A third individual saw it as a living entity that had a spirit, as did all things of nature.

These individuals were asked what they would do with the plant based on their perceptions of it. The first individual said that she would care for it, and that she would be certain that it was watered and fertilized appropriately. She also indicated that she would put it in her bedroom to increase her own intake of oxygen. The second individual said that he would put the plant in a special place in his home, because it would look nice in one of his rooms. The third individual said he would transplant it outside so that it could be with mother earth.

Following this, they were asked how their actions might have influenced the outcome. The first individual said that the plant would live and that she, herself, would be healthier because of the oxygen. The second said that he would enjoy the plant. The third said that the plant would be where it belonged, and its spirit would be free.

After these reports, all were asked to consider how their life histories (i.e., conditioning variables) might have influenced their perceptions of the plant, their responses to the plant, and the potential outcomes of their actions. Among other things, the first individual indicated that she had a scientific nature and that she had raised a lot of plants; the second said that he would have to think about this, and the third said that his way of perceiving plants and interacting with them was a part of his culture.

Following this activity, the model was introduced (see Figure 1) using theparticipants responses as examples of each of the variables. Participants then began to explore examples of significant events and transitions in their lives that might also fit the model. For example, I explained that I travel a great deal and that my husband and one of my best female friends typically go out to dinner when I am gone. I told the participants that when I arrive home, my husband tells me that he and my friend have gone out to dinner. I respond by asking him if he had a nice time and by asking about my friend. I feel happy that he was able to do something fun while I was out of town; and that concludes our interaction about the topic.

In applying this event to the model, participants speculated that I perceived this event to be a neutral or positive thing, and that my response was minimal and positive as well. The outcome was that I maintained my friendship with my friend and my relationship with my husband. The participants were then asked to consider some of the conditioning variables that might have influenced my response to this event (i.e., trusting relationship with husband, trusting relationship with friend, history of trusting relationship with and between parents, confidence in self, experience with previous similar events, open communication, no cultural biases regarding the topic, etc.).

The participants were then asked how I might have responded if I had perceived that it was wrong for my best friend and my husband to go to dinner while I was out of town. The participants indicated that both my response and the outcome of the event would have been much different than it had been in the first scenario. We then examined the possible conditioning variables that might have influenced my negative perceptions and responses.

Following this discussion, participants were invited to consider this model in relation to the events/transitions of their students. They were encouraged to think about ways that the model could be used to more clearly understand student's and parents' responses to events and to develop strategies for assisting students who are undergoing transitions. At the conclusion of the session, participants seemed to have a clear understanding of the model, and to begin to look at their own transitions from a new perspective. They were encouraged to continue to apply the model not only to their own transitions, but also to their students' transitions.

Further Application of the Model

Although the amount of time available for the session did not permit further application of the model, this paper will do so. The model will be applied to the following events:

(a) parents' reaction to a child's deafness,
(b) children's reactions to national tests, and
(c) children's reactions to the transition from one school to another.

Parents who have a deaf child may respond to their child's deafness in a variety of ways, depending upon a wide array of conditioning variables (e.g., socioeconomic level, own hearing status, positive or negative experience with deafness, education, gender, resources available, ability to use sign language, personality, cultural biases). These conditioning variables might individually or in combination influence their perceptions of the deafness. For example, parents who are deaf may be more likely to perceive the deafness of their child as a neutral or positive event; whereas parents who are hearing may perceive the deafness as a negative and stressful event. These perceptions would then influence the ways parents cope with the deafness and the ways they interact with their child. Their behaviors might then influence the child's psychosocial development.

Children who are taking a national test may respond to this event in a variety of ways. Conditioning variables (e.g., parental expectations, self-expectations, cultural expectation, previous experience with tests, understanding of own abilities, consequences of the grade) might influence the child's perception of the test. For example, if the child is accustomed to receiving relatively low grades, has parents who do not have high expectations of their academic level, or lives in a culture that does not value high academic performance; they may not perceive this test as an important event. On the other hand, a child who typically receives high grades, has parents who have extremely high expectations for them, and lives in a culture that expects students to achieve at high levels may perceive the test as a very important event. Based on the child's perception of that event, they may react in a variety of ways. The child who perceives the test as relatively unimportant will perhaps use fewer problem-solving strategies to prepare for the test (i.e., studying) and may not feel a great deal stress while preparing for and taking the test; whereas a child who perceives the test as important may use many problem-focused strategies (i.e., taking extra classes, studying a great deal), may seek social support (i.e., talk with teachers and others who have taken the test), and may feel a great deal of stress both while preparing for and taking the test.

Children's reactions to a transition from one school to another might

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also vary depending upon a number of variables. The child who is self-confident, has had experience with other positive transitions, and who has been given some actual control over whether or not to make the transition may perceive this change of schools as being controllable and involving little stress. Conversely, the child who has low self-esteem, has not had previous experiences with similar transitions, and who is forced to change schools may perceive the move as a stressful event in which they have no control. These perceptions might influence the child's responses to the move. The child who perceives the move as controllable and nonstressful may respond by using problem-focused coping and seeking social support; whereas the child who perceives the move as out of his/her control or stressful may respond by using wishful thinking or avoidance. The result might be the child who uses health promoting strategies (e.g., problem-focused stratiegies) will adjust to the move more easily than the child who uses less health promoting strategies (e.g., wishful thinking, avoidance).

These three examples are only hypothetical situations and are not necessarily based on research. They are offered to assist the reader in applying the model in a variety of settings. Educators can use the model when considering the transitions being made by themselves, their students, or the parents of their students. The model can encourage them to realize that not all people will respond to similar events in similar ways.

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Life-Long Learning: Learning to be Productive

Terry K. Oester & Dawn E. Oester

Education is a way to achieve goals of productivity, of efficiency. It is a mechanism for growth by which accomplishments are measured and personal, community, and national goals are achieved. It has helped build infrastructure, powered factories, and developed transportation systems. But, with technology development, education is about to undergo a transformation which will help increase productivity even further.

With the rapid approach of the information age, technology will provide access to information in multiples of what print information has provided. People will be able to receive and present information and implement ideas like never before in history. It will create a worldwide Industrial Revolution, transforming the way we live and work.

To meet the challenges that technology will impose, people will have to improve their skills. The utilization of information networks and services will demand that education be on-going. However, education will need to be more than experiencing information forple were categorized and segmented for their learning opportunities.

The above scenario may be oversimplified. However, the principle remains the same. The scholar, educator, teacher, was the one who controlled the information of what was to be learned. The educator presented the material, only to have it recited or repeated in a different format to measure a student's understanding. If individuals did not understand the material due to their own capacities or the way in which the material was presented, it was considered to be the student's problem.

From this programmed learning came evaluation, followed by the measurement of intelligence.It was the "intelligence quotient" that set standards upon which others were measured. If those assessment standards were not met, the individual was soon categorized as a non- or under-achiever.

For those individuals who could take tests and restate the information provided by the scholar, meeting objectives was not difficult. However, other forms of intelligence were disregarded in the measurement of learning. Recently, information regarding how people learn has been developed. Pioneered by people such as Daniel Goleman, Stanley I. Greenspan, Renate Caine, John Abbott, and others, teaching to the functioning of the brain is becoming recognized in relation to assessment, especially as it relates to applicability and achievements.

One of those pioneers, Daniel Goleman, has conducted significant research in teaching to the emotional intelligence. Goleman, author of *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ,* states, "Emotional intelligence is a different way of being smart. It includes knowing what your feelings are and using your feelings to make good decisions in life." However, he further states, "Both types of intelligence are important, but they're important in different ways. IQ contributes, at best, about 20 percent to the factors that determine life's success. That leaves 80 percent to everything else" (O'Neil, September 1996, p.6).

There are two significant reasons for educating the emotional intelligence. First of all, not everyone is going to end up being what has been evaluated as a model student, the one who can recite information back. The information age will allow people to pursue their own directions through many phases of information. The educational process then will focus on self-development, to improve one's skills and capacities no matter what direction the individual decides to pursue.

Our emotions are what motivate us, and what deter us. By developing strong emotional skills, an individual is able to perform at higher levels with the ability to present concepts and take a leadership role in bringing those concepts to fruition. Educating the emotional intelligence produces the initiative, inventiveness, and readaptability needed for life's challenges. It is these three capacities that will determine an individual's implementation of applicability and productivity.

Second, if education and learning are synonymous terms, then the process should lead to understanding and the utilization of that understanding. The goal of learning should be the implementation of that understanding and, in most environments, that implementation should relate to a societal value. The importance of emotional intelligence then reflects back to having the ability to understand more than facts and figures. It relates to the ability to process information and apply that information for individual, community, and national development.

To focus the educational experience on emotional intelligence is to reach the individual's mechanism for learning. The emotional intelligence is how individuals perceive their world and the elements within their environment. To ignore such a vital area is to prevent the individual from developing the capacities that are essential to learning and productivity.

The emphasis on emotional intelligence should not circumvent the need to develop one's cognitive skills. They are both important in the development of an individual. But to just understand and recite facts does not lead to applicability .

The Partnership Foundation's educational life-long learning program is based on three primary elements:

1. that assessments of an individual must be based on the ability to apply information;
2. that curriculum is continuous and represents a world perspective

for developing life management skills;

3. that the educator of the future will be a manager of information.

Unlike many applications where evaluation, curriculum development, and teacher training are developed independently, the Foundation's program is developed congruently, providing a consistent and continuing learning process.

The Learning Product being developed by The Partnership Foundation offers a type of assessment for primary and secondary grades. Based on performance or one's ability to learn, the learning product seeks to identify factors which affect and effect student learning.

By monitoring the results of these assessments and applying those results to the individual learner, our goal is to determine how these factors, when multiplied together, affect the process of learning for that individual. Such knowledge should result in adaptations which increase the learning capacity of each student whether those capacities are related to agriculture, industry, service, or other sectors.

The Learning Product is based on the understanding that everyone does not learn at the same level. Pace, understanding of material, cultural and environmental settings, all affect one's learning. The learning product is also based on the understanding that not everyone is going to be a corporate executive, an engineer, or a doctor. People have different desires, capabilities, and skills and their level of understanding of material differs.

The Learning Product focuses on factors which affect student learning. These factors include emotional development, life management skills, adaptation skills, and learning styles.

These factors will serve as the foundation for the development of progressive assessments. These assessments will be performance based, measuring application of content and skills and will include a wide variety of techniques:

(a) written products,
(b) solutions to problems,
(c) experiments,
(d) exhibitions,
(e) performances,
(f) portfolios of work,
(g) cooperative group projects, and
(h) teacher observations.

By directly measuring actual performance in a subject area, instruction will be directed toward what students need to know and need to be able to do. The assessments will be appropriate to the student's age and level of learning. They will also provide information which is useful to both the student and the teacher.

All forms of assessment are summarized numerically. Therefore, individual results can be combined to provide a variety of information about aggregate performance at the individual, school, state, and national levels.

The use of these assessments will create a variety of effects. First of all, they will serve to broaden the curriculum and encourage the development of thinking and problem-solving skills. They will measure application skills rather than test-taking skills. On a broader scale, they will allow for a mobilization of a diverse labor force, where categorization or segmentation are eliminated and individual productivity meets personal, community, and national goals.

In order for these assessments to be most effective, their development must be congruent with the development of a new curriculum. Traditional curriculum design is being challenged by the development of technology. Technology broadens the base of study, exposing students to a wide range of subjects and enabling them to master a variety of ideas and skills.

Technology also presents new challenges to educators. What should be taught, how should it be taught and how should learning be measured?

The Partnership Foundation's curriculum is designed to provide for continuous progress in a multi-age environment. The overall instructional program includes planned sequences in four major areas:

(1) Communications,
(2) Mathematics,
(3) Environmental Settings (elements affecting an individual's surroundings), and
(4) Cultural Development.

Young children will be provided with a great deal of guidance as fundamental skills and knowledge are established. This teacher-provided direction is then progressively reduced and learning becomes more self-directed. The goal is to have students learn to work independently in accessing knowledge, information, and skills.

Instead of being limited to the basics of reading, writing, and arithmetic–all taught as separate subjects–students learn to use all subjects in real life applications. Greater accessibility to information through the use of technology offers students the opportunities to gather, analyze, evaluate, and apply data which is relevant to their needs.

Simple accessibility to a wide range of information sources does not guarantee learning, however. Critical thinking skills must be carefully developed. Students must be able to distinguish between fact and opinion, between valid and invalid information, between relevant and irrelevant data. Developing these critical thinking skills is essential in order for students to apply the ideas and skills they have mastered. By learning to approach problem solving from a variety of perspectives, they will be able to utilize the information in new ways and direct their own learning.

Students will also need to develop strong communication skills, both oral and written. The ability to communicate with people of various ages and cultures, whether in personal contact or via some technological device, is essential in the Information Age.

As students prepare for life in a global environment, they must also expand their knowledge of the world around them. They must be familiar with the social sciences and the natural sciences and be aware of their own civic and individual responsibilities in the worldwide community.

The use of technology as a learning tool enables students to explore a wide range of information, examine relationships between seemingly unrelated areas, and gain control over their own learning as they apply that information in new ways. Computer and communications technology can also link them with other learners as they work together to solve real-life problems.

Technology forces curriculum to become broader and more flexible. It provides alternate sources of information and changes the way we approach teaching and learning. The increasing role of technology in education means that the teacher and the textbook are no longer the primary sources of information. With the variety of alternative resources available, the teacher becomes a ***manager*** of information rather than the ***presenter*** of information.

The teacher's role then becomes that of facilitator, mentor, and collaborator. The teacher guides the students in organizing information and examining it from different perspectives. In order to be effective, the teacher must be attuned to the student's developmental level through assessment and observation.

Instead of presenting information, the teacher must present learning challenges which can be met through active participation and personal initiative. These challenges must utilize techniques which require the student to engage with not only the material but also with other learners, whether in the classroom or in a distant location.

As students gain experience and skills, the teacher may utilize different guidance techniques. Younger students, for example, will require more direction and more specific learning objectives than older students as learning fundamentals are established. The older students may be able to design their own challenges and direct their own learning with only occasional encouragement from the teacher. Additional guidance may also be required as students explore new learning experiences, including new content.

The teacher must design learning challenges, using the student's perspective and natural inclinations in order to broaden the student's understanding and experience. However, the teacher must not label the student as a particular type of learner with a particular type of intelligence. Instead all learning styles and intelligences must be incorporated, expanding thestudent's ability to learn from a variety of different sources.

The teacher must also encourage the student to reflect on their own learning and on the value of the information presented. The teacher must question and challenge the student to engage in the learning process.

The teacher's role as a guide lessens as the student gains experience and skills. As students become more and more self-directed, the teacher becomes a collaborator in the learning experience, enabling the student to become an independent learner who is able to apply knowledge and skills.

With the use of technology in the classroom, the learning environment also changes. It becomes more dynamic and flexible. The use of time also becomes more flexible and efficient. As schedules are restructured, more time becomes available for learning. The pace of instruction is altered as students pursue their learning objectives.

The teacher's responsibility then becomes one of providing standards for measurement and flexible time lines as students are guided to learn in steps and a pace appropriate to their learning styles and their cognitive abilities. Both teacher and student are fully engaged in the learning process.

The primary outcome of this program is adaptability. This adaptability applies not only to the students as individuals utilizing their developed skills in leading more productive lives and meeting community and national goals, but also to other institutions in developing programs and policies related to productivity.

Life-long learning begins in early childhood as needs and wants are interpreted. How those needs and wants are responded to establishes the beginning of societal values and fulfilling individual, community, and national goals. It also provides the building blocks for life-long learning which are reinforced and developed in a structured setting.

Driven by technology development, education will take on a new importance in human development. Once a basic foundation for life-long learning has been established, learning will be based on enhancing people's skills in relation to understanding and applicability. The importance will not be placed on the number of computers in a classroom or work environment but on the delivery and interpretation of information for utilization. Communication skills, both oral and written, will become a necessity. Analytical, quantitative, and qualitative skills will be needed to ascertain "disinformation",i.e. direct lies, misinformation, information mistakes, and entertainment-enhanced information from basic facts.

Technology can easily list the names, dates, and events for those who find it interesting. Technology will also allow for the "what if" scenarios of why a particular event took place. It will give the student an opportunity to delve into different scenarios of cause and effect and to speculate about what might have happened if a different decision had been made. Technology will then produce a learning environment where the student is able to pursue an understanding that was not available from just written text.

As technology provides a means for problem-solving through the delivery of information, the utilization of computer and communication technologies will lead to a quicker response in accomplishments. With available information sources, accepted practices will be coming from more than just scientific, mathematic, medical, or other disciplines. People will, whether connected by academic degree, career, or other interests, pursue desired information and implement that information into desired results for market. To assure a safe product, people's skills will need to be developed to analyze, qualify, and quantify information.

Global competition will certainly increase in the information age. How that competition will be met depends on education. Learning to be productive will produce more than simple solutions for complex problems. It will produce new products and new markets. To stimulate those products and markets, a new emphasis on education must take place, an emphasis that allows for the life-long pursuit of learning. Education is a journey , not a destination.

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China-US Conference on Education
Beijing China

Chapter Twelve

Teacher Assistance Teams: A System for Supporting Classroom Teachers in China or the United States

Margaret Van Dusen Pysh & James C. Chalfant

Abstract

Schools need effective systems for supporting teachers in meeting student's individual needs and responding to school wide problems. The Teacher Assistance Team (TAT) model is a school-based problem solving group which supports teachers by analyzing student, classroom, or school problems and creating alternative strategies for resolving those problems (Chalfant, Pysh, & Moultrie, 1979; Chalfant & Pysh, 1993). This article includes guidelines for establishing teams, operating procedures for contacting teams, preparing for meetings, conducting 30 minute team meetings, following-up, and the process for training and developing teams. TAT is a cost-effective model, requiring no additional staff. For 25 years schools throughout the United States have successfully implemented TAT. Research data have demonstrated its value for meeting the needs of individual students, reducing inappropriate special education referrals, and facilitating communication and collaboration among faculty and parents.

Chinese and U.S. schools share some common concerns; both are seeking more effective and efficient methods of creating quality education and helping each student reach their potential (Daping, 1997). In both countries, the major service provider for students is the classroom teacher and an insufficient number of teachers are trained to meet students' individual needs (Armfield, 1992; Boqi, 1996). Schools in both countries also share a constant demand for effective and reasonably inexpensive methodologies (Mu, Yang & Armfield, 1993). Basic education in China is becoming primarily a local enterprise which must take the realities and needs of each locality intoaccount (Daping, 1997; Ming, 1996), while education in the U.S. has moved toward site-based management for similar reasons (David, 1995).

The Teacher Assistance Team (TAT) model is a school-based problem solving group which supports teachers by analyzing student, classroom, or school problems and creating alternative strategies for resolving those problems (Chalfant, Pysh, & Moultrie, 1979). This article provides an overview of the

Teacher Assistance Team model and how it can be implemented in Chinese or American schools.

Teacher Assistance Teams can be used to address many problems or issues which arise in a school. TAT provides a forum where teachers engage in a positive, systematic problem-solving process concerning students at risk, classroom, parent or schoolwide concerns. Students who are at risk for failure in the classroom may include those with learning and/or behavior problems, or disabilities of various kinds. The needs of disadvantaged, transient, or gifted students and general instructional or curricular issues also may be addressed by teams (Chalfant & Pysh, 1993). The TAT model is particularly useful in schools which lack trained specialists or financial resources. TAT is very cost effective and can be implemented quickly since no additional staff is needed and the procedures have been designed to minimize time and paperwork. The TAT process can be used as a first step to help students who are at risk, support special education, or address total classroom or schoolwide problems (Chalfant & Pysh, 1981).

A TAT team typically consists of a core of three general education teachers representing various grade levels or disciplines. The teacher requesting assistance is a fourth and equal member of the team. Teams also may include special education personnel, administrators, parents or students themselves, as appropriate (Dettmer, Thurston, Dyck, 1993). For best efficiency and effectiveness, teams should not include more than six team members per meeting.

How Should TAT Operate?

The operating procedures for TAT are flexible and vary somewhat from school to school to fit each school's needs and culture (Phillips & McCullough, 1990). However, the majority of TAT teams utilize the six critical procedures presented here (Chalfant & Pysh, 1993). See Figure 1.

1. **Contacting The Team** (10-15 minutes). When a teacher, administrator, or parent wishes to contact the team for collaboration/assistance, they answer four questions on a one-page form called: *Request For Collaboration/Assistance*. Because this article was written to assist schools in China, the sample case of Honmin Lee, a third grade male Chinese student, was created by a Chinese teacher (Y.W. Xu, personal communication, May, 1997).

Describe what you would like the student to do that he/she does not presently do.

1) To listen attentively and follow directions
2) To stay on task and complete both classroom and homework assignments
3) To catch up with his classmates in reading and math.

Describe what you have done to help the student cope with their problems.

1) Moved him away from the student he liked to talk to in the class
2) Kept him after school for additional instruction
3) Assigned a student to help him with his class work
4) Sent a written homework assignment reminder to hisparents
5) Called his parents to ask them to monitor their child's homework.

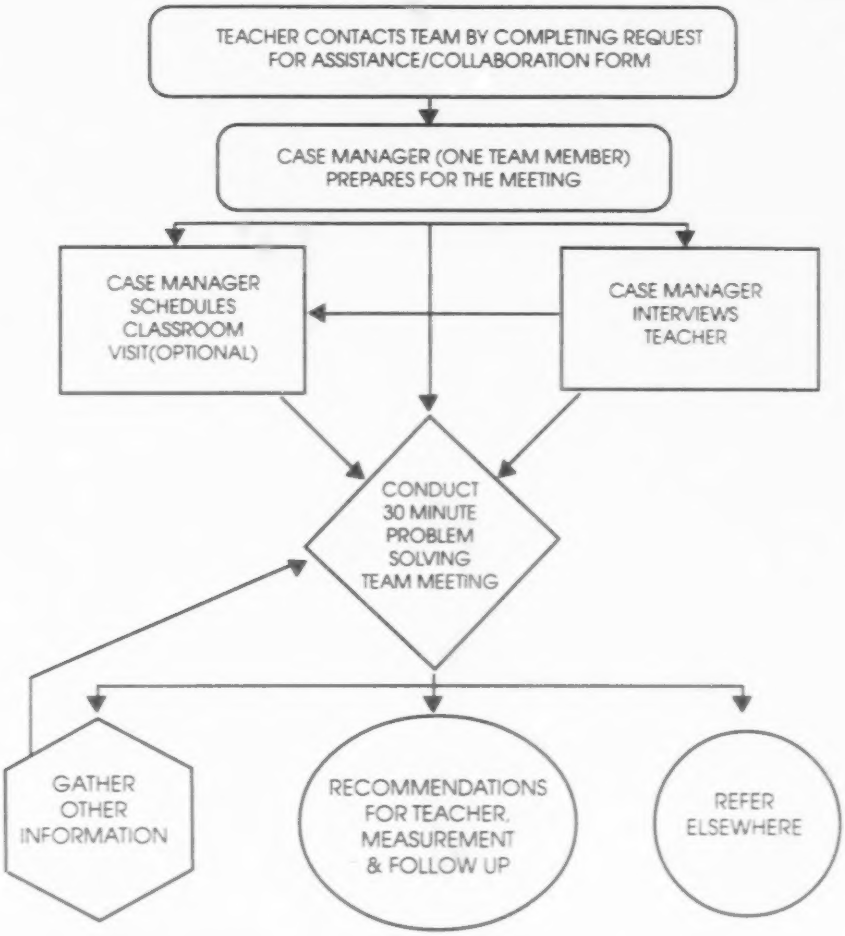
TEACHER CONTACTS TEAM BY COMPLETING REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE/COLLABORATION FORM
CASE MANAGER (ONE TEAM MEMBER) PREPARES FOR THE MEETING
CASE MANAGER SCHEDULES CLASSROOM VISIT(OPTIONAL)
CASE MANAGER INTERVIEWS TEACHER
CONDUCT 30 MINUTE PROBLEM SOLVING TEAM MEETING
GATHER OTHER INFORMATION
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHER, MEASUREMENT & FOLLOW UP
REFER ELSEWHERE

Figure 1. The Teacher Assistance Team Process

Please describe the student's strengths and needs.

Strengths	**Needs**
1) Good attendance	1) He is behind other students in the class in math and reading
2) Able to work well with other students	2) Does not follow directions for class assignments
3) Can stay on task when interested	3) Does not stay on task more than a few minutes
4) Seems to have normal ability or above	4) Does not complete assignments at school or at home
	5) Avoids school work by disturbing others and making noise

What other information should we know?

Both parents are full-time factory workers. They have rotating night work shifts. They are concerned with their child's problems in school and have punished the child for not completing assignments.

2. **Preparing For The Meeting** (15 minutes). The team leader assigns one team member as case manager and they:

a) reviews the information on the request form;
b) constructs a visual problem interaction diagram of the problem displaying and integrating the information from the request form into a reasonable guess (see Figure 2); and
c) lists questions which need to be clarified with the teacher.

The case manager routes the request form and diagram to the other team members who review all materials and write additional questions.

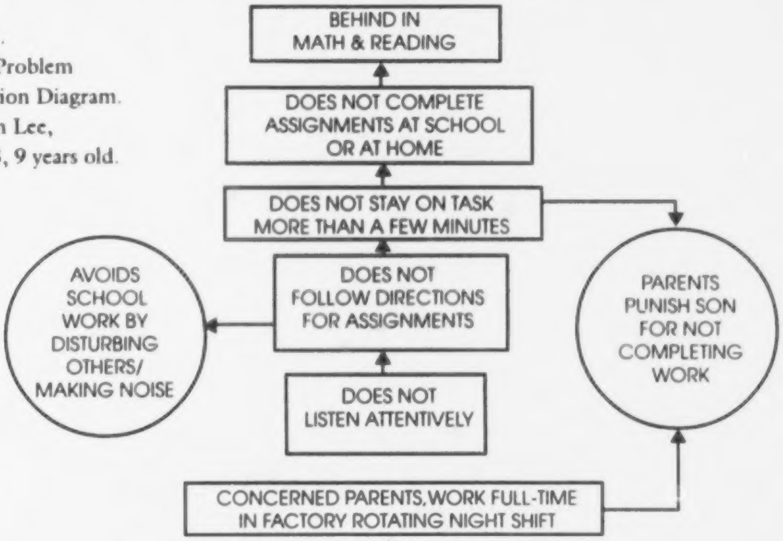
BEHIND IN MATH & READING
DOES NOT COMPLETE ASSIGNMENTS AT SCHOOL OR AT HOME
DOES NOT STAY ON TASK MORE THAN A FEW MINUTES
AVOIDS SCHOOL WORK BY DISTURBING OTHERS/ MAKING NOISE
DOES NOT FOLLOW DIRECTIONS FOR ASSIGNMENTS
PARENTS PUNISH SON FOR NOT COMPLETING WORK
DOES NOT LISTEN ATTENTIVELY
CONCERNED PARENTS,WORK FULL-TIME IN FACTORY ROTATING NIGHT SHIFT

Figure2.
SampleProblem
Interaction Diagram.
Honmin Lee,
Grade 3, 9 years old.

3. **Interviewing The Teacher and Classroom Visitation** (15-20 minutes). The case manager interviews the teacher to ask the questions the team has raised or to clarify information. For example, the case manager or team members might ask in this case "Exactly how far behind is the student in math and reading? What kinds of directions does he have trouble following?" Observing the student in the classroom can be useful in gaining a better understanding of a situation but often is unnecessary if the issues are clarified during the interview.

When the team meets, all team members are familiar with the issues to be resolved. This preparation process allows team meeting time to be devoted to problem-solving, NOT problem sharing

4. **Conducting The Meeting** (30 minutes). The team meeting requires 30 minutes and typically is held either before school, during the lunch hour, or after school. This is the first time the requesting teacher and team all meet together. The agenda for the meeting consists of six steps:

Step One. *Reach agreement on the problem (5 min.).* This step is usually completed before the meeting through the diagram and interview process during meeting preparation (see Figure 2). These few minutes allow for a review and update to reach final consensus on the nature of the problem if needed.

Step Two. *Negotiate one or two instructional or behavioral objectives (3 min.).* In the sample case, the teacher might select a goal such as:

(a) to listen to directions in reading group and be able to repeat them accurately to a classmate or

(b)to stay on task in math group for 15 minutes during independent seatwork time

The key to successful goal selection is to identify a goal which is specific, measurable, and sufficiently limited so that it is reasonable for the teacher and the student to achieve. It is essential that the teacher selects the goal since they will be implementing the plan and knows the student and the situation best.

Step Three. *Brainstorm alternative suggestions (10 min.).* The teacher and team engage in a brief brainstorm process usually creating 8-32 ideas in 10 minutes. The success of brainstorming depends on the specificity of the goal and the ability of the team to generate reasonable alternatives by staying on task, without commenting or elaborating unnecessarily.

Step Four. *Teacher selects methods to try (2 min.).* The teacher selects the suggestions to try knowing which techniques best fit this student and this situation and that they will be implementing the plan.

Step Five. *Write an elaborated/refined plan and decide how to measure success (8 min.).* The final plan is summarized on one page with responsibilities established and methodology elaborated so that all team members are clear about who will be doing what, when, and how. A system also is developed for measuring progress.

Step Six. Plan follow-up (2 min.) The team's last decision during this first meeting is to determine when to meet again to discuss the progress on this case. The teacher selects a date for the follow-up meeting from two to six weeks from the date of the first meeting.

5. **Implementing the Recommendations** (2-6 weeks). The teacher implements the recommendations within the classroom and measures the student's progress.

6. **Following Up Recommendations** (2-6 weeks). The teacher returns to the entire team to report on the student's progress within 2 to 6 weeks. If the plan is not working, the team and teacher revise the plan by modifying the goal or the methods. In some cases, it may be necessary to gather additional information or to refer the student for further evaluation or other services. If the plan is working, the teacher is reinforced and a maintenance plan is devised.

How Effective Is TAT?

During the past 20 years data have been gathered to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of the TAT model. Studies have been conducted on:

(a) the kinds of intervention goals selected by teams;
(b) improvement of student performance;
(c) impact on special education services;
(d) teachers' reactions to teams; and
(e) factors related to team effectiveness (Chalfant & Pysh, 1989).

An overview of these results are presented here:

1. Nearly 60% of the goals of beginning teams were directed toward improving student classroom behavior, work habits, interpersonal problems, attention deficiencies. The number of instructional goals increases after the behavior and discipline problems are resolved in schools.
2. Academic achievement is increased through team intervention.
3. Teams were effective in reducing the number of students referred to special education resulting in reduced costs in time and money.
4. The vast majority of teachers believe teams helped them analyze and resolve classroom problems.
5. Factors related to team success include principal support, team members' interest and dedication, and teacher support.

How Can a Team be Developed in My School?

Anyone can initiate the development of a team in a school (Chalfant & Pysh, 1981). The first step is to familiarize the principal with the purpose of the team, who the members are, how the team functions, and how the team can help students, teachers, and parents in the school (Friend & Cook, 1996).

The second step is to recruit the school faculty to try and obtain their interest in creating a problem-solving team for the school. The TAT model should be presented as an experiment to determine whether it can be helpful to the school.

The third step is to conduct a 6-hour initial workshop to train faculty in the team operating procedures and adapt or develop the forms to be used by the team. Participants can be divided into teams of three to-six persons. Initially, each participant fills out a Request for Assistance and Collaboration. Requests are then exchanged between tables. Each group operates as a functioning team to gain group collaborative experience in the following aspects of the model:

(a) accurately and succinctly describing student needs and classroom problems;
(b) analyzing and conceptualizing student needs through a visualization diagramming process;
(c) applying communication principles for interviewing teachers and functioning on teams;
(d) conducting efficient and effective 30-minute problem solving meetings in six steps (refer to the section on conducting the meeting); and
(e) having the teachers from the school develop a plan for establishing a team in their school.

The fourth step is to conduct a six-hour follow-up workshop which usually occurs four to six months after initial training. The content of follow up workshops varies depending on the level of team development. The follow up workshop is designed to identify the questions, problems, or issues the teams have encountered and provide recommendations and solutions. This workshop makes it possible for teams to share their successes and problems and build a network among teams for communication, problem solving, and support.

Conclusions

Twenty five years of research has demonstrated that the TAT model works (Chalfant & Pysh, 1989). It seems to work because:

(a) teams consist of respected groups of peers who work well together (Johnson & Johnson, 1994);
(b) individual teachers identify their own needs (Parish & Arends, 1983);
(c) teachers select the goal and intervention strategy they want to use (Friend & Cook, 1996); and
(d) follow-up meetings are mandatory and administrators support the team members' efforts (Maeroff, 1993).

A Teacher Assistance Team serves as an effective preventive system to help teachers with any at-risk student; a support system to assist a school in becoming a collaborative environment (Johnson & Pugach, 1996); and a first step in identifying potential special education students. Most importantly, the TAT process supports teachers in learning how to analyze problems and individualize instruction to maximize progress for any student.

China has set a national goal of achieving two basics in education :

1. universal 9-year compulsory education and
2. eradicating illiteracy (Boqi, 1996; Yan, 1997).

The Teacher Assistance Team process could support Chinese schools in planning and achieving these longterm goals with a practical, inexpensive school-based system for educators which is founded on the fundamental concepts of the power of collective thought and the need for student-centered teaching (Boqi, 1996; On, 1996).

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Authors' Note:
The authors gratefully acknowledge the valuable assistance and editing of University of Arizona doctoral candidate Yi Wei Xu whose fluency in Chinese and experience as a teacher in China guided us in altering our terminology and examples to communicate more effectively with our Chinese colleagues.

Chapter Thirteen

Collaborative School Improvement: An Integrated Model for Educational Leaders

Eleanor A. Perry

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to provide educational leaders with a systematic way to create collaborative school improvement. Their role as staff developers is explored. Two specific organization development (OD) problem solving strategies: Situation-Target-Plan (S-T-P) and Force Field Analysis (FFA) are explained and an overview of action research principles is provided. On the basis of these three domains (staff development, OD, and action research), an integrated model for collaborative school improvement is suggested. A brief account of a successful project using this model to increase student achievement is included.

Administrators As Staff Developers

As the cry for increased school reform becomes deafening, local site administrators are becoming more involved with staff development. Rosie O'Brien Vojtek (1992, p. 1) wrote "current literature views staff developers as the critical link to organizational change. They are repeatedly being called to facilitate innovations which are designed to lead to effective school renewal and institutionalized school reform." Richard DuFour (1991) suggested that the principal should be the key player in effective staff development. He developed 10 strategies to help make that happen:

1. Create consensus on the school you are trying to become.
2. Identify, promote, and protect shared values.
3. Monitor the critical elements of the school improvement effort.
4. Ensure systematic collaboration throughout the school.
5. Encourage experimentation.
6. Model a commitment to professional growth.
7. Provide one-on-one staff development.
8. Provide purposeful staff development programs that are research based.
9. Promote individual and organizational self efficacy.
10. Stay the course. (DuFour, 1995, pp. 3-5)

How does this new focus on staff growth differ from the past? Traditionally staff development simply meant teacher training. In Vojtek's (1992) study of 115 National Staff Development Council members whose primary responsibility was staff development, she found that most school districts were training only teachers or administrators. In those instances, staff development often referred to experts conducting one-day seminars on current educational issues, strategies, or instructional methods. Sometimes teachers became trainers-of-trainers by presenting a staff development session for their colleagues. Occasionally, support staff (custodians, clerks, secretaries, educational assistants) attended a mandatory training meeting to inform them of safety regulations or update them on specific procedures to enhance their job performance. Administrators rarely initiated professional and personal full-staff growth efforts.

What happens when administrators view staff development as an opportunity for all building personnel to grow together with the ultimate goal of improved student achievement? When school districts value staff development, administrators provide time and money to facilitate full-staff professional and personal growth. Especially now, with increased emphasis on collaboration and team building, educational leaders seek new ways to provide meaningful learning for their staffs.

Dennis Sparks (1994) stressed one way to connect student achievement and staff growth is to focus on organization development (OD) as well as individual development. When reflecting on the past 25 years of staff development he wrote, "It is now clear that success for all students depends upon both the learning of individual school employees *and* improvements in the capacity of the organization to solve problems and renew itself" (p. 27).

OD processes are valuable tools for staff developers who focus on school improvement. The strategies can (a) help a dysfunctional staff become a more cohesive team, (b) alter the norms of the group's culture, and (c) productively lead the organization through planned, systematic change. To better understand the process, I will first provide a brief historical background of organization development. Then I will explain two useful OD strategies.

Organization Development

In the 1960s, educators became interested in OD strategies that had been prevalent in the business arena since the 1940s (see Richard Schmuck & Eleanor Perry, 1994, for a detailed historical background of OD). Fullan, Miles, and Taylor (1980, p. 135) defined classical OD ineducation as

> "a coherent, systematically planned, sustained effort at system self-study and improvement, focusing explicitly on change in formal and informal procedures, processes, norms, or structures, and using concepts of behavioral science."

OD applications of the 1960s and 1970s began to move away from this classical design. They started to include "more eclectic and flexible interventions in which aspects of OD are being integrated into larger school improvement strategies" (Schmuck & Perry, 1994). As OD developed over the years, educators paid more attention to communication skills, problem solving, decision making, and conflict resolution. Simply stated, the more contemporary goal of OD is to provide people with the tools needed to solve their own problems on a continuing basis. It follows then, that the aim of OD in schools is to help educators work collaboratively to change behaviors that ultimately would solve educational issues. Richard Schmuck and Philip Runkel (1994, p. 1) wrote that

> "schools and colleges are social organizations. Without human collaboration and commitment, they are only wood, concrete, and paper. Typically, educational improvement requires less change in the paper and more change in the patterns of human action."

One way to modify human behavior is to use an OD problem solving strategy called S-T-P. According to Schmuck and Runkel (1994), the S-T-P process has three parts. First, the group identifies an unsatisfactory present situation (S), second, they determine a more desirable goal or target, and third, they create a path (P) that removes (or at least shortens) the gap between the "S" and "T." One way to look at the overall S-T-P concept is like this:

1. Agree on the Situation.	(Where are we now?)
2. Choose one Target.	(Where do we want to be?)
3. Create a Path.	(How do we get there?)

S-T-P is part of a six-step problem solving process:

1. Determine the current situation and desired target.	S and T
2. Brainstorm ways to reach the target.	P
3. Decide what forces will help or hinder your progress.	FFA
4. Develop an action plan.	Plan
5. Implement the plan.	Act
6. Evaluate your efforts and make adjustments as needed.	Adjust

The third step of the process, the force field analysis (FFA), is critical. Kurt Lewin, a social-psychologist who conducted human relations training in the 1940s, developed this concept. His workshops focused on how people could make their groups more effective by looking at how they personally interacted on a social basis. This internal, self-diagnosis was very different from Taylor's popular scientific method. Lewin believed you must look beyond the simple tasks at hand to solve work-related problems. He argued that the scientific method must include social-psychological concepts. Marvin Weisbord (1990, p. 97) described Lewin's force field analysis as follows:

> Every unsolved problem represents forces pushing for and against resolution. Easier and effective solutions come by reducing restraints rather than adding pressure. . . . Force field analysis quickly identifies restraints to be reduced. It is effective as a group exercise because it helps people see all at once what can be done, and builds group support for follow-through.

Force field analysis (FFA) involves four steps:

1. Pick one high priority target.
2. Brainstorm all forces that might help or hinder reaching the targeted goal.
3. Choose up to six forces that might hinder your progress the most.
4. Prioritize the six forces.

The first step of the FFA can be the most difficult. Group members often have strong feelings about what is most important. The educational leader must stress the need for group consensus and assure members that no identified ideas will be lost in the process.

In Step 2, the group lists forces that might enhance their journey toward, or deter them from reaching targeted goals. There is no discussion during this exercise other than asking clarifying questions. Individual forces might include people's feelings and attitudes toward the target. Group forces might focus on norms, roles, and procedures. A larger sphere of social forces might point to the community's climate toward change. Finally, the force field analysis might include helping and hindering forces at the macro-political level of state and national influences.

In the third step, the group chooses six forces that might hinder progress the most. Again, people's individual feelings and concerns might interfere with the overall scope of the planned, systematic change process. To be successful, all participants must respect the decision of the group. Individuals might not fully agree on the forces chosen, but they must be willing to support the effort by not impeding the team's progress.

In the final step of the FFA process, the group prioritizes the new shorter list of hindering forces based on how feasible it is to remove each force. Then they develop a plan of action. This plan includes multiple suggestions for how to remove the identified, prioritized hindering forces. The plan also details who is responsible for each specific task within a given timeline. The team monitors progress on a regular basis and makes further change based on the results of a self-evaluation. Once group members become comfortable with the S-T-P and FFA strategies, they can apply those problem solving techniques as the foundation for an action research project.

Action Research

Action research has been around in one shape or another for over fifty years. Its earliest beginnings came when a group of government agents looked to the farmers, themselves, to help solve agricultural problems. Kurt Lewin and his student, Ronald Lippitt, expanded this notion. They believed that "social problems should be served by social inquiry" (Emily Calhoun, 1994, p. 16). As such, they moved action research out of the agricultural fields and applied it to social psychology. In the early 1950s, Stephen Corey applied Lewin's work to the field of education.

Corey's thesis, according to Calhoun, was that

> "school practitioners would make better decisions and implement more effective practices if they conducted research as part of their decision-making process and used the results of such research as a guide to selection or modification of their practice" (p. 17).

Today teachers are becoming involved in studying their own profession instead of being studied by outside experts (Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Susan Lytle, 1993). Twenty-first century educational leaders, too, must find practical ways to investigate issues and implement solutions. Action research is one way to meet that need.

Unlike traditional research that simply reports findings, the purpose of action research is to improve education. It is a hands-on study conducted by people who have a burning desire to create change in their profession. James Keefe and John Jenkins (1997) suggest that action research "acknowledges that theory and practice go hand-in-hand, and that practitioners are capable of reflecting critically upon what they do with the aim of improving it." The five steps of action research are:

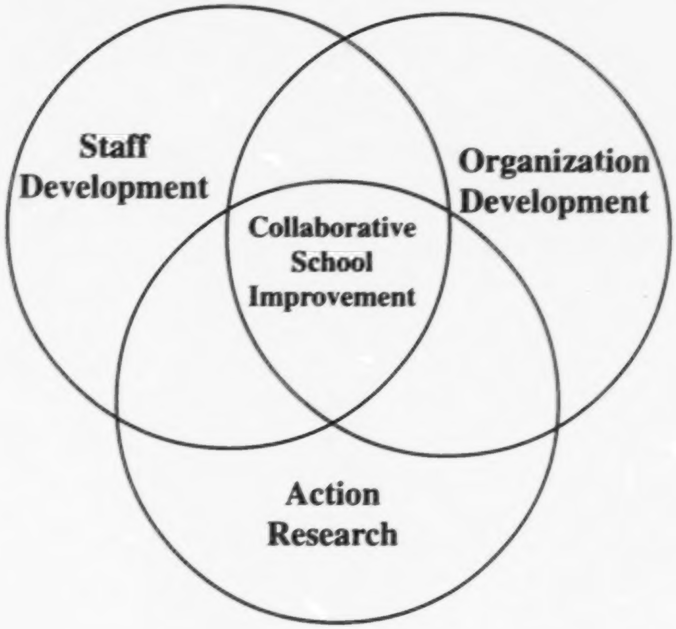
(1) State the problem,
(2) Collect the data,
(3) Analyze the data,
(4) Report the results, and
(5) Design an action plan.

In the first step, the group identifies key issues. Then they collect data in a variety of ways from within their surroundings. For instance, existing school records or students' work collected in portfolios provide value sources of data. Next, the researchers analyze the data by identifying main themes and sorting the data into logical supportive evidence matrixes. Then they use that information to prepare a report for formal and informal presentations. Finally, the action researchers develop a plan for implementation of what they learned during their investigation for the purpose of school and classroom improvement (Richard Sagor, 1992). The five steps of action research, indeed, provide an ideal way to pull together staff and organization development. It is on that notion that I suggest the following integrated model for collaborative school improvement.

An Integrated Model

Creating planned, systematic change is like taking a trip. OD strategies such as S-T-P and FFA help you get ready for the trip by providing specific steps for becoming a community of self-sustained problem solvers. Staff development serves as the vehicle that helps you travel down the road to change, while action research carries you successfully to your new destination--a self-renewing organization whose main focus is improved student learning.

Perry's Collaborative School Improvement Model



Action research, augmented by the OD S-T-P and FFA strategies, fits nicely into staff development sessions. The design would look like this. First, the staff states the problem using S-T-P and FFA strategies. Second, teams collect and analyze data pertinent to solving their agreed-upon problem. Next, they report their findings to the whole staff who then design a plan for putting action into their research. Finally, they implement the action plan and evaluate it at regular intervals.

One might think of this integrated model as a building project. OD represents the hands-on tools and action research represents the blueprints. The instructional leader uses the tools and blueprints to facilitate the construction of the *schoolhouse of change*. That schoolhouse is builtduring staff development sessions by a dedicated team of specialists, the teachers and staff. Each person on the team brings specific strengths to the project. With a strong foundation in all three disciplines (staff development, OD, and action research), the chance of successfully constructing an environment for increased student learning is greatly enhanced. That is what happened in a school where the staff applied this integrated model.

Applying the Model

This study took place in an economically-depressed rural school in Southern Oregon where I was principal. There were only six schools in the entire state with a lower socio-economic status. The school housed 150 students (5-11 years old) and 23 district employees. Eighty-four percent of the students received free or reduced lunches. There was an 86% annual student transient rate and a high teacher turnover. Standardized test scores were historically low.

District officials allowed one hour each week for teachers' staff development meetings. Early in the school year, teachers decided they wanted to investigate two issues. First, they wanted to determine if a connection existed between the students' socio-economic status and their low test results. Second, they wanted to learn how data collection and reporting might help them better understand the problems at their school. They collectively agreed to rearrange their schedules so that all support personnel could attend the staff development meetings too. The teachers believed there were serious problems in their school. They felt solutions should come from *all* people who touched the children's lives on a daily basis.

At subsequent staff development meetings, I used my background in staff and organization development to guide the faculty and staff through the S-T-P and FFA strategies. They identified their current situation (S), designated a desired target (T), and created a path (P) to narrow the gap between the "S" and "T."

After much discussion, they agreed to focus solely on increasing student achievement in reading. They believed this was the most critical, immediate issue they faced. S-T-P helped them collaboratively reach that consensus. Then I introduced the concept of force field analysis. FFA results identified three major hindering forces:

(1) lack of teaching materials,
(2) lack of school focus, and
(3) lack of flexibility in grouping students.

The staff devoted the remaining sessions to removing thosehindering forces by initiating an action research project. Teams collected student data and current research on improving student reading in high poverty communities. They reported back to the full staff at the regularly scheduled staff development meetings. Then they developed their action plan. They used their data to pursue federal grant moneys for additional resources and staff training in reading strategies for children of poverty. They also devised strategies for sharing their current teaching materials and worked on creative ways to meet the children's needs through alternative grouping plans.

As their plan grew, they also grew professionally and personally. The integrated model helped them become a cohesive team focused on common goals. It also provided an opportunity to alter their norms of isolationism. Teachers and staff indicated a special bonding within their small groups as they shared common feelings and concerns. At the individual level, one person wrote, "I learned the importance of sharing philosophies and ideas–I learn more about *me* every time we share."

Educational Implications

'This paper describes a school improvement model that integrates an advanced form of staff development, OD strategies, and action research methodology. It shows how a principal assumed the role of key staff developer and applies the integrated model in a high poverty school. Instructional leaders can learn from this example. They can use this model to (a) enhance staff development in their schools, (b) create a collaborative environment for shared decision making, and (c) provide an avenue for on-going self-evaluation leading to school improvement.

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Chapter Fourteen

Professor-In-Residence: Redefining the Work of Teacher Educators

F. Morgan Simpson

Abstract

Montgomery Public Schools (Montgomery, Alabama, USA) was awarded a BellSouth Foundation grant to establish two Professional Development Schools (PDS). The grant also supported the appointment of two Professors-in-Residence (PIRs) in the PDSs. This paper focuses on the role of the PIRs in bridging the gap between the university teacher preparation program and the elementary PDS.

F. Morgan Simpson was one of the PIRs and he spent two half-days a week at Morningview Elementary School working with teachers and students. Simpson taught sample lessons for elementary teachers and worked with beginning teachers. He also worked with specific elementary students, many times the problem students, in an attempt to change attitudes and behavior. Simpson's background in secondary education mathematics served as both a curse and a blessing to his responsibilities as a PIR.

The PIR served in an idealistic position where he had opportunities to influence both the worlds of practice and theory. The PIR was able to witness and document first hand the current work of practicing teachers and K-6 student needs. The PIR was also able to reflect upon the effectiveness of his own teacher preparation program in preparing interns and beginning teachers. The PIR followed preprofessional educators through the preparation program and examined the effectiveness in the internship. In one case, Simpson was able to observe one student matriculate from an introduction to education course through the internship at the school and finally become a first year teacher at Morningview Elementary School.

The teacher preparation programs have changed over time to include various approaches to introduce the preservice teacher to the classroom. When this writer was initially prepared as a secondary mathematics teacher, the only time he spent in the schools prior to the internship was for a brief two-week in-school field observation between the junior and senior years of college. Today's prospective teachers experience extensive time in a school setting. This paper is about various changes in the teacher preparation programs and more specifically about the experiences I had serving as a Professor-In-Residence at Morningview Elementary School in Montgomery, Alabama.

Practice Component in Teacher Preparation Programs

Traditional teacher preparation programs are based on a theory-practice format. This means the college student begins with course work (the theory) taken at the higher education institution, then

through various means the student is allowed to practice the ideas learned in the courses. Gehrke (1987) reported that these experiences provide the prospective teacher a realistic experience in teaching so that they may decide whether to continue pursuing a teaching career.

Efforts to include a practice component in the preparation program have varied over the years. These efforts to introduce relevance in the teacher preparation programs have included student teaching (internship), laboratory schools, microteaching, video taping, case studies, and field experiences. Each of these are briefly described.

Student Teaching (internship). The internship is a time where the college student is assigned to work full-time in the school setting with an experienced classroom teacher. The intern is supervised by both a classroom teacher and a university supervisor. The intern is able to experience the realities of the classroom in a nurturing climate with support and encouragement. The internship represents the culminating activity in the preparation of new teachers. The quality of the student teaching experience is dependent upon the quality of the classroom sites that in many cases are not designed to prepare teachers and are beyond the control of the higher education institution. Therefore, additional experiences prior to the internship are required to acquaint the preservice student to the teaching profession.

Laboratory Schools. Laboratory schools were created on college campuses to teach both K12 students and to provide experiences for the preparation of future teachers. The college students were able to observe K-12 students and teachers as well as observe demonstration lessons taught by university faculty. During the 1960's and 1970's the need for university students to see normal classrooms and financial problems in higher education resulted in the gradual elimination of many of laboratory schools (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996). The current trend of creating collaborative agreements between universities and local school districts resulting in professional development schools is similar to the laboratory school programs.

Microteaching. Microteachng is where preservice teachers present a brief 15 to 20 minute lesson to a small group of students who are usually peers. This allows the student to practice specific teaching skills under a limited controlled environment. Jensen and Young (1972) found students that completed microteaching activities presented more meaningful lessons and created better classroom climate during the intemship than those students not participating in microteaching activities. Additional research report there were no significant differences between students participating in microteaching activities and those not participating (Copeland & Doyle, 1973). Thus, additional techniques to provide relevance to the teacher preparation program are needed.

Video Technology. Video technology with or without computer interactions have been introduced in the preparation programs. At first video equipment was used to tape and review sample lessons. The tapes could be demonstrations/model lessons or even microteaching lessons. Winitsky and Arends (1991) reported that video taped demonstrations were as effective as viewing a live lesson.

Some universities and publishing companies are using interactive videodisk technology. This videodisk and computer allows the prospective teacher to view demonstrations or critical events from actual K-12 classrooms and interact with the materials through the computer and thus experience situations that may not be available to them in their field experiences. Studies have reported the effectiveness of interactive video in developing reflective clinical reasoning (Copeland, 1989). Goldman and Barron (1990) found that students using the videodisk technology in a mathematics methods course were more confident in presenting mathematics lessons after viewing and analyzing video demonstrations. The use of this technology in the teacher preparation program can be useful in developing a reflective teacher.

Case Studies. The use of case studies is an additional attempt to bring reality to the preparation of teachers. The presentation of cases can be through written or video formats. Cases provide students the opportunity to examine realistic situations and consider the relevant factors as they become aware of their beliefs about teaching and learning (Harrington, 1990-1991). Students test their own conceptions of teaching and students when using case studies.

Field-Based Experience. Goodlad, Soder & Sirotnik (1990) reported the typical teacher education program in the United States consists of course work, various field experiences, and student teaching. In the field experience component, the prospective teacher is assigned to a specific teacher and school setting for brief periods of time (usually for 10 to 15 hours at a time). The students are given specific responsibilities for each field experience, and the responsibilities are dependent upon the specific course work assignment. Field experiences are popular because they link prospective teachers with the actual K-12 classroom, provide opportunities for one-onone teaching encounters, and the college student is inducted into the existing school climate. These experiences allow prospective teachers to discover early in the program if they like children and want to teach, to permit university faculty to determine students' potential, and to allow university students to practice instructional skills prior to the internship (McIntyre, 1983).

Most universities involve a large number of preservice teachers and their placement in classrooms. As a result of the number of needed placements, the universities are not able to control the quality of the field placements. Also the preservice teacher, the cooperating teacher, and universityinstructors may lack a common goal. The university wants the prospective teacher to observe and participate in activities that reinforce the topics being taught on campus. The preservice teacher often lacks suffficient experience to know what to examine in the field-based classroom plus how to properly interpret what they see in the classroom. Sometimes the preservice teacher observes practices that contradict what the university instructor was teaching. Some preservice teachers question the need for field-based experiences. Ideally, preservice teachers should have opportunities to work with different types of students and classroom teachers, and participate in classrooms that are representative of the ones in which they might find employment.

Metcalf and Kahlich (1996) reported that laboratory experiences are more effective with inservice teachers than with preservice teachers. Inservice teachers' view of the value of field experiences equal those of preservice teachers, and changes in behavior, knowledge, or attitudes are as strong or stronger.

Relevance Component in Teacher Preparation Program

Relevance is obtained in the teacher preparation program through means other then just the practice component of the preparation program. Relevance can be achieved primarily through the faculty, the teacher educators themselves. It begins with hiring faculty with sign)ficant K-12 experiences. The selection of faculty with several years of experience and leadership in the K-12 school setting is important to both the development of the teacher preparation program and to their own personal credibility in the university classroom.

Teacher-In-Residence.

At my institution, Auburn University at Montgomery, we created a Teacher-in-Residence (TIR) program. We bring two, sometimes three, full-time teachers from Montgomery Public Schools to join the university School of Education faculty for a two year period of time. The Teachers-in-Residence teach courses in the School of Education and supervise interns. They are full partners in the normal activities of university faculty. The only activity they do not participate is the academic advising of students. At the completion of the two years, they return to a classroom in one of the public schools of Montgomery. While on the college campus the TIRs present seminars and work with students beyond the students enrolled in their classes. We found the TIRs to be excellent university teachers and good colleagues.

Professor-In-Residence.

The next logical step was for us to involve university faculty as faculty in the Montgomery County public schools. This opportunity was available through a grant from the BellSouth Foundation. A BellSouth Foundation grant to Montgomery Public Schools and the Auburn University at Montgomery School of Education created a Professor-In-Residence (PIR) at two elementary schools (Morningview and Harrison Elementary Schools). This partnership between the university and school district also designated the two elementary schools as Professional Development Schools as part of the grant.

I was selected as one of the PIRs. The selection process required the candidates to make presentations to the faculty at the two schools, then the school faculty selected the person they wanted to serve as their PIR. I was selected by the faculty at Morningview Elementary School and I spent two half-days a week at the school for two years (1994-95 and 1995-96). This service as a PIR was both rewarding and challenging.

As a person with a background in secondary mathematics education as well as a high school principal, I found working in an elementary school was both challenging and rewarding. I had worked with elementary teachers and students when I served as a mathematics supervisor, but the reality of working with K-6 teachers and students on a weekly basis was at first frightening.

The principal asked that I work with both students and teachers. Some of my time each day was structured and some of my time was unstructured. I was assigned to work with the fourth grade teachers, so some of my time was spent teaching fourth grade students various Stanford Achievement Test skills. I attended all faculty meetings and I met with the fourth grade faculty at their grade level meetings. At the end of my two years, it was the fourth grade students and faculty that gave me the most pleasing gift of appreciation.

The principal also allowed me the flexibility to visit any of the forty-one classrooms in the school. I would make random visits to the other classrooms in the school. Many of the teachers requested that I come to teach a demonstration lesson or to just read a library book to the students. I developed patterns of classrooms that I would visit, and I discovered there was one kindergarten class I always visited upon arriving at the school. There was one fifth grade class I visited each week so that I could take a weekly mathematics test along with the students. I was asked to work with the sixth grade students on a special project. So, some of the time I spent in the school I served as a demonstration teacher and at other times I served as a cheerleader, encouraging the students to do their best.

I was given the task of working with some problem sixth grade students. There were five boys which were difficult for the teachers to handle. I attempted various activities with them and I am not sure I did any good. One of the best activities I tried was when I took them to another school so they could read to four and five-year-old children enrolled at a Head Start Center. In the new setting they behaved as ideal young men and were excellent examples of perfect behavior. I normally go to this Head Start Center to read to the children and was very pleased that involving these sixth grade students worked so well. After we returned to Morningview, I was constantly asked by other sixth grade students to take them to read.

Students in the teacher preparation program were assigned to visit Morningview as part of a field-laboratory assignment or as interns. I made sure the university students enrolled in my Introduction to Education course were assigned to spend the field laboratory time at Morningview. So as a university representative in the school, I made sure students participated in various activities. In the university classroom I often discussed with the students events we witnessed at Morningview. In this way I could make sure the students did not misunderstand or were aware of many activities which lab students frequently miss. While I was not the university supervisor for the elementary interns assigned to Morningview, I was able to assist the interns in working through many of their problems. I was not responsible for their supervision, so for many of the interns I was able to be their professional friend and a part of their support system.

I felt a need to involve my university colleagues in the work at Morningview. As I interacted with the faculty at the university I was constantly telling them about incidents at Morningview. They soon began to expect me to interject some story about what I was experiencing on a regular basis. I was able to get several of them to visit the school. One colleague became a substitute teacher at the school and another began visiting the school on a regular basis. At the end of the experience, the school superintendent granted permission for the university faculty to become involved with the Morningview students and staff in various action research projects. I regret to say that in the fall of 1996, I had a change in my job responsibilities which did not allow for my weekly visits to Morningview. This area of involving university faculty along with the Morningview faculty and students in research projects would produce a lasting link between the university at the school. I regret that I had to give up this assignment before I was able to involve more of my university colleagues in this relationship with Morningview Elementary School.

Working as the PIR, I was able to gain the K-6 faculty perspective. The Morningview faculty was critical of the way university students were assigned to their classroom as part of the field laboratory component. The university student would come to the school and attempt to just observe in the classroom. The university professor had wanted the student to teach a portion of the lesson or even to work with a group of elementary students on a project. As the PIR, I discovered that the expectations for the field laboratory experiences were not communicated to the K-6 faculty. Once this problem was corrected, the faculty at both the university and the elementary school were pleased with the quality of the experiences. The K-6 faculty enjoyed being involved in designing appropriate activities for the lab students, and the university faculty enjoyed suggestions from the practicing professionals.

My background in secondary mathematics education served as both a curse and as a blessing. Not being directly involved in the preparation of the elementary teachers prevented me from carryingmy university classes to Morningview School. The other person (Dr. Lynne Mills) selected as the PIR at Harrison Elementary School was able to involve her university students with the school faculty and students. She was able to teach portions of her courses at Harrison Elementary School, and her students were able to interact with elementary students. This interaction between university student and the elementary student resulted in an excellent preparation for her preservice elementary teachers. She was also able to have one classroom at Harrison Elementary School equipped as a resource room for the Harrison faculty and this room served as a place for the university students to prepare their instructional materials. Dr. Mills was very successful at blending the university students and the elementary school faculty and students. Dr. Mills and I continually reviewed what we were doing as PIRs and I was very envious of her successes. However, I was able to use my experiences in the teaching of mathematics to show students and faculty at Moringview several new ideas. I taught several demonstration lessons in the area of mathematics. The teachers were appreciative and I was frequently being asked for ideas of how to teach different topics. There were no vacant classrooms at Morningview Elementary, so I was not able to bring the university students to Morningview. However, I was able to bring the sixth grade students to the university. We provided a day of activities and demonstrations for the sixth grade students in May, 1996.

I was pleased to discover that beginning in the fall of 1996, a new first year teacher at Morningview Elementary School was a recent graduate of our teacher education program. I first met her as a student in the introduction to education course I teach. I was able to follow this student as she matriculated through the preparation program. She completed her internship at Momingview in one of the fourth grade classes in which I visited. I was very pleased to see firsthand the development of this new teacher. I only wish I had been with her during her first year of teaching. She will be an outstanding addition to our beloved profession.

I was able to interject into my class discussions examples and situations which I saw at Morningview Elementary School. These recent experiences were excellent for the university student to examine. The university students select teaching as a career choice for rather idealistic reasons, and they need to become aware of problems which today's teachers must face. University faculty are criticized by some because they claim we do not understand the current conditions in schools. This experience as a PIR at Morningview have reinforced the idea that some conditions *are* different and I have a greater appreciation for the work of elementary school teachers. I would like to think that this experience has forced me to become more realistic about the working conditions in K-6 schools today. I met the world of practice through the PIR experiences and I believe I have some ideas that will work in the K-6 setting.

Summary

The teacher preparation programs includes different activities directed at bringing reality to the prospective teacher. These include activities such as microteachng, video technology, case studies, and field-based experiences. Two additional programs are excellent in bringing reality into the preparation program. A Teacher-In-Residence program can bring the practicing professional to the university classrooms, but the focus of this paper was the Professor-In-Residence program. This allowed a university professor to assume the faculty duties in a K-6 school. These experiences became for this writer both challenging and refreshing. Both the K-6 school and the university benefited from the program.

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Chapter Fifteen

Emerging Priorities and Emphases in School Counseling, Guidance, and Student Services

Garry R. Walz & Jeanne C. Bleuer

Introduction

School counseling has been a staple of American public education for over fifty years. It has emerged from a service for a limited number of students with special needs to a schoolwide program focused on the developmental needs of ***all students.*** It is offered as an integral part of the school curriculum from pre-kindergarten to post high school.

This paper will focus on five components which have won general consensus as characteristic of educationally and psychologically sound school counseling programs for all students. The external features of a school counseling program nay vary depending upon local conditions and priorities. But the basic principles of an optimum school counseling program are well established and have won broad support from counseling and educational professional organizations.

The five components to be discussed are:

1. Delivery of guidance and counseling through a comprehensive K-12 developmental program.
2. Involvement of parents and communities in the school counseling program.
3. Utilization of educational technology by both counselors and students.
4. Targeting of new areas of student knowledge and skill.
5. Emphasis on student outcomes from counseling rather than counseling program inputs.

These five components do not constitute all (or necessarily the most important aspects) of present day American school counseling programs. They do, however, represent contemporary thinking as to what are the crucial aspects of a school counseling program and where the emphasis on change and improvement is currently focused.

Undergirding Counseling Principles

The five components which are to be discussed can best be understood by reference to a few undergirding principles of a school counseling program.

1. There are clear and definable counseling behavioral objectives appropriate for student learning and performance at each grade level.
2. Students should be prepared to assume responsibility for and have the requisite skills for making and continually updating life/career decisions and plans.
3. Learning about oneself and how one can continually improve his/her ability to cope with and adapt to varying external conditions is an important focus of school counseling.
4. Every student is a member of a number of systems, e.g., family, peers, school class, etc., each of which influences the student and, in turn, is influenced by the student.

These four principles, more illustrative than definitive, provide a brief overview of the basics of school counseling. Perhaps the most basic concept of all is that comprehensive developmental school counseling programs are committed to assisting students of all ages to acquire the knowledge and skill requisite to taking the responsibility for planning and managing their lives. Paraphrasing an old saying, give a person a fish and you feed him/her for a day; teach the person how to fish and you feed him/her for a lifetime.

Crucial Components of Educationally and Psychologically Sound School Counseling Programs

1. Delivery of guidance and counseling through a comprehensive K-12 developmental program.

Traditionally, guidance and counseling programs have been seen as an ancillary service separate from the regular school curriculum which helps students overcome immediate school and personal problems. Extensive absences or poor attention in class are typical examples.

The new *Comprehensive Guidance Program* model is an integral and vital component of the student's educational environment. It is developmental rather than problem-oriented; it focuses on prioritized student goals and behavioral outcomes for each grade level; and it is designed to be a regular part of the school curriculum. The comprehensive approach has the large advantage of helping all students to develop their potentials and to become more of what they are capable of becoming.

It also calls for the counselor to coordinate the participation of teachers, parents and community members in the program. By involving significant members of a student's school, home and social life, the school counselor greatly increases the overall influence which counseling has on the student.

Research results confirm that the comprehensive, developmental approach promotes greater student satisfaction as well as teacher, parent, and community support. Particularly important is the increased learning of relevant skills and competencies for mastering lifelong learning and living.

2. Involvement of parents and communities in the school counseling program.

Experience and research have demonstrated the importance of parental and community involvement in guidance-driven activities such as career planning, school learning and achievement, and the acquisition of employability skills. Family and community involvement, when mediated by counselors, can greatly aid students in developing sustained motivation requisite to staying in school, excelling in school, adopting appropriate role models, and psychologically preparing for the school-to-work transition.

This involvement of family and community members has the highly desirable effect of giving students a feeling of being in touch with the "real world" arid preparing students for the challenges and opportunities it affords. The result is that they are likely to be both better motivated and more focused in their learning and life/career planning.

3. Use of instructional technology as an integral component of the school counseling program.

The intensive and extensive use of educational technology by counselor is having a positive impact on the number of students served and the quality of the service provided. In particular, three technological tools are benefitting the school counseling program:

a) computers, with the availability of a wide range of software including interactive CD-ROM programs;
b) the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) database and the counseling resources provided by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Student Services (ERIC/CASS); and
c) the Internet with its many Websites and special features such as Listservs and virtual libraries.

Computers

Computers are the basic tools that provide access to other forms of educational media such as the ERIC database and the Internet. Recent years have also seen a great expansion in both the availability and the sophistication of counseling relevant software for use by students and/or counselors. Career guidance software is an excellent example of this type of counseling resource. When students are able to use computers on their own or in small groups to extend and enhance their learning and acquisition of information, the quality of the one-to-one interaction time between counselors and students is greatly increased.

ERIC and ERIC/CASS

ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) is the world's largest educational database with approximately one million entries covering both documents and journals. It is the most frequently used educational database in the world with access provided through over 1,000 libraries and information centers in 27 countries around the world. ERIC is now searchable via the Internet with most documents entered since January, 1996, available in full-text.

The benefits of ERIC to school counseling fall into two basic benefits.) First is the huge array of information directly available to students and parents covering such counseling topics as career planning, school-to-work transition, learning and study skills, etc. Any student with Internet access is able to locate, read, and print out or download these materials.

The second benefit is the great boost ERIC provides for counselor staff development and professional renewal. ERIC can be used to provide information on specific questions or reviewed on a regular basis as a means of updating professional knowledge. Complete and detailed information on ERIC and its use is available in the booklet listed in the bibliography, *All About ERIC,* and on the ERIC Website at ***http://www. aspensys. com/eric.***

Internet

The importance of the Internet has been likened to that of the printing press in terms of the greatness of its power to facilitate communication between people around the world. It offers information resources of unparalleled quantity and breadth, many of which are highly relevant to the goals of school counseling. At very low cost, a counselor in any location with Internet capability can access and use counseling resources that can greatly aid both the counselor and counselees.

The ability to send messages to other Internet users via electronic mail (e-mail), to access counseling-relevant Websites, and to join electronically in interaction with other counselors and students through Listservs without the usual limitations of time and distance are of major significance to counselors. In addition to the ERIC Website noted above, we believe that there are two additional Websites which would be of particular interest and use to those persons interested in school counseling. They are:

The ERIC/CASS Website at: http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass
The American School Counselor Association Website at: http://www.edge.net/asca/

Of particular interest on the ERIC/CASS Website are the links to counseling relevant virtual libraries. For example, one link (http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/career/index.html) provides the user with a wide array of full-text resources dealing with career development and another link array of full-text resources dealing with career development and another link (http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/achieve/index.htm) contains many full-text resources dealing with student learning and achievement. Virtual libraries of resources on school violence, substance abuse, school-to-work transition, and multiculturalism will be available in late 1997.

An additional very valuable Internet resource which school counselors can access through electronic mail is the AskERIC service. By sending a question by e-mail to askeric@ericir.syr.edu anyone can receive a personal e-mail response from one of ERIC's network information specialists within two business days. The response will include a list of citations that deal with the topic as well as references to other Internet resources that contain additional information.

4. *Targeting of new areas of student knowledge and skill.*

Research has demonstrated the importance for students to gain mastery in a number of behavioral areas. Among these are:

(a) problem solving and decision making;
(b) social competence in relating to and working with others;
(c) resilience and invulnerability to deprivations (the ability to overcome setbacks and even turn negative events into positive developmental experiences); and
(d) the "new basics" essential to performance in today's workplace (e.g., teaming, networking, listening, group decision making).

Evident in the selection of these new school counseling outcomes is a strong proactive orientation, i.e., empowering youth with the personal insights and the knowledge and skills requisite to their being able to contribute in a world class economy where personal knowledge and skill are the quintessential resources of importance.

These and other subjects constitute a core counseling curriculum of mastery skills which counselors and comprehensive guidance programs offer students to empower them to more effectively cope with living, learning, and working in today's world.

5. *Emphasis on student outcomes from counseling rather than counseling program inputs.*

Traditionally, the worth of counseling has been determined by the qualifications of the persons providing the counseling services, e.g., degrees held, years of experience, etc., the ratio of students to counselors (the fewer students per counselor the better the program), the size and quality of the counseling facilities, and the number and quality of material resources. Hence, a counseling program with experienced counselors holding advanced degrees who had small counseling loads and access to vast space and resources was, by definition, a good program. Currently, the emphasis has shifted from a focus on program inputs to a focus on student outcomes, i.e., what students are able to do after counseling that they were not able to do before counseling. This new highly refreshing emphasis is essentially on whether counseling makes a difference in student learning and behavior. And, if so, in what areas and how much? The results of this outcome research are helping counselors to focus on those activities which will make a demonstrable difference in their students. The result is both more effective and more efficient school counseling programs.

We conclude this session by bringing you greetings from the Director of the U.S. Department of Education National Library of Education, Blane Dessy. He extends his congratulations on the conference and invites you to undertake a virtual visit by accessing the National Library of Education (http://www.ed.gov/NLE) and the ERIC Websites. And, to enhance access to the ERIC Internet resources by Chinese counselors and educators, we would like to propose that the ERIC and the China Education and Research Network (CERNET) develop linkages to one another's Websites.

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ERIC Resources

ERIC...for all your information needs!

Garry R. Walz & Sheila F. Davis

ERIC

ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) is a national information system that provides ready access to an extensive body of education-related literature. Through its 16 subject-specific clearinghouses and four support components, ERIC provides a variety of services and products including acquiring and indexing documents and journal articles, producing publications, responding to requests, and distributing microfilmed materials to libraries nationwide. In addition, ERIC maintains a database of over 800,000 citations to documents and journal articles.

ERIC/CASS

The ERIC Counseling and Student Services Clearinghouse (ERIC/CASS) was one of the original clearinghouses established in 1966. Its scope area includes school counseling, school social work, school psychology, mental health counseling, marriage and family counseling, career counseling, and student development.

Topics covered by ERIC/CASS include the training, supervision, and continuing professional development of counseling, college student services and development professionals, as well as adult counseling and mental health professionals. Other up-to-date and relevant topics include:

(a) counseling theories, research methods, and practices;
(b) the roles of counselors, social workers, and psychologists in all educational settings at all educational levels;
(c) career planning and development; self-esteem and self-efficacy;
(d) marriage and family counseling; and
(e) counseling services to special populations such as substance abusers, pregnant teenagers, students at risk and public offenders.

ERIC/CASS exists to serve anyone who has a need to access information related to counseling and student services with quick and friendly assistance to retrieve information related to counseling and human services. Print indexes (RIE and CIJE), on-line searches, and ERIC on CD-ROM can be helpful in locating what is needed.

How To Access Information

The most convenient method of gaining access to the information is to contact a local public, college, or university library that provides ERIC database search services. The customer service staff at **1-800-LET-ERIC (538-3742)** can provide information about the location in your area.

Customers can also access ERIC Clearinghouses or the central ERIC facility via the Internet at **http://www.accesseric.org:81/** You may conduct your own search of the ERIC database on the Internet by visiting the ERIC Document Reproduction Service at: **http://edrs.com/**.Complete instructions and tips for targeting your search are provided.

You can send an e-mail question and receive a return e-mail usually within 48 hours. The reply will contain a mini-search of the ERIC database with references to ERIC documents and journal articles as well as suggestions for other sources of information relevant to your question. Send an e-mail to: **askeric@ askeric.org** or search the website at: **http://askeric.org**.

Contact Us Directly

Should these options be unavailable to you, contact ERIC/CASS directly for your information needs. We are able to electronically search and retrieve information based upon descriptors and key words as well as bibliographic information such as author, publication date, etc. You may request a search via a letter or fax indicating subjects, topics, key words or phrases, etc., that you wish to focus upon. You may also contact us by telephone **(800/414-9769)** or e-mail **(ericcass@uncg.edu)** so that we may discuss your needs and assist you in focusing your search in order to provide results as specific as possible.

More Resources From ERIC/CASS

ERIC/CASS is an active user of electronic communication. The CASS website features an array of targeted virtual libraries that offer users access to an unparalleled abundance of resources on priority educational topics including materials from the U.S. Department of Education and the National Library of Education. These on-line functioning libraries provide a wealth of free, full-text resources which can be downloaded and instantly put to use.

- **CAREER DEVELOPMENT**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/career/index.htm
- **CULTURAL DIVERSITY**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/diverse/index.htm
- **SCHOOL-TO-WORK**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/stw_tran/index.htm
- **SCHOOL VIOLENCE**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/violence/index.htm

- **STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/achieve/index.htm
- **SUBSTANCE ABUSE**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/substnce/index.htm
- **CONFLICT RESOLUTION**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/conflict/docs/tableoc.htm
- **GANGS**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/gangs/docs/tableoc.htm
- **JUVENILE BOOT CAMPS**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/bootcamp/DOCS/tableoc.htm
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- **BULLYING**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/bullying/DOCS/tableoc.htm
- **ASSESSMENT IN COUNSELING & THERAPY**
  http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass/(to come)

Access the user-friendly ERIC/CASS website at:
http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass

INTERNATIONAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT LIBRARY

Where to Go When You Want to Know...developed and managed
by NOICC & ERIC/CASS.

The *ICDL* is a Virtual Library available to anyone with an Internet connection. It features a wide range of books and resources covering all aspects of career development for all age levels and for practitioners, researchers and educators, as well as students and parents. With the ongoing assistance of professional organizations such as NCDA, AVA, ACA, and ASCA and Department of Education components such as NLE, ERIC and the Labs & Centers, it has exceptionally comprehensive and intensive coverage. Some of its special features are listed below, but like any new major development, it has to be seen and experienced to appreciate it!

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Access the International Career Development Library at:
http://icdl.uncg.edu/

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ERIC/CASS publications provide resources which respond to your needs. Written by expert researchers, scholars, and practitioners, they range from two-page information digests to in-depth monographs and books. ERIC/CASS publications are well-known for their intensive and up-to-date analyses of high priority topics. We also offer selected publications from other professional associations such as ASCA and ACA.

For information on ERIC/CASS publications, call for a catalog **(800/414-9769)** or you may order from our on-line catalog at: **http://www.uncg.edu/edu/ericcass**.

The Eric/Cass Newsletter

ERIC/CASS regularly announces new publications and digests, important developments in OERI and the Department of Education, and the availability of specialized training through workshops, conferences, and conventions. The CASS newsletter is the usual way of updating members of the CASS network

Since 1993, ERIC/CASS has been located at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, NC.

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